Universidade de Aveiro Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial
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MARIA JOÃO AIBÉO CARNEIRO

MODELAÇÃO DA ESCOLHA DE DESTINOS TURÍSTICOS: UMA ANÁLISE DE POSICIONAMENTO

MODELLING THE CHOICE OF TOURISM DESTINATIONS: A POSITIONING ANALYSIS

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tese apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutor em Turismo, realizada sob a orientação científica do Professor John Crompton, Distinguished Professor do Departamento de Recreation Park and Tourism Sciences da Universidade de Texas A&M e sob a co-orientação científica do Professor Doutor Carlos Manuel Martins da Costa, Professor Associado com Agregação do Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial da Universidade de Aveiro

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palavras-chave turismo, selecção de destinos, posicionamento, análise.

resumo

Os elevados impactes económicos do turismo têm sido crescentemente reconhecidos em todo o mundo. Os responsáveis pelo desenvolvimento e promoção do turismo investem esforço e recursos consideráveis para levar as pessoas a visitarem determinados destinos. Nas últimas décadas, foi feito algum progresso ao nível da compreensão do modo como os potenciais turistas seleccionam um destino turístico. No entanto, pouco se sabe sobre o modo como os visitantes comparam os destinos que consideram visitar e sobre a razão porque escolhem visitar um determinado destino em vez de outros que também consideraram visitar. O objectivo desta tese é contribuir para um melhor conhecimento dos critérios utilizados para comparar os destinos que as pessoas consideram visitar.

Procede-se a uma revisão de literatura pertinente sobre o posicionamento de destinos turísticos e modelos de escolha de destinos. No sentido de expandir os contributos fornecidos por outros autores, um novo modelo de escolha de destinos é proposto e parcialmente testado. O objectivo é fornecer um modelo que incorpore alguns aspectos relacionados com o posicionamento que foram negligenciados em anteriores modelos de selecção de destinos. O novo modelo incorpora explicitamente uma análise de posicionamento num modelo do processo de selecção dos destinos. Este modelo expande as contribuições de modelos anteriores por integrar determinantes do posicionamento de destinos que não foram considerados em outros modelos, bem como por testar empiricamente relações entre determinantes do posicionamento que foram negligenciadas anteriormente. O modelo revisto também sugere que a influência dos determinantes do posicionamento pode mudar ao longo do processo de selecção dos destinos.

keywords tourism, choice of destinations, positioning, analysis.

abstract

The extensive economic impacts of tourism have been increasingly recognised worldwide. People engaged in tourism development and tourism promotion invest considerable effort and resources into attracting people to visit destinations. In recent decades, progress has been made into better understanding how potential tourists select a destination. However, little is known about how visitors compare destinations they consider visiting, and why they choose to visit one destination rather than others they have considered. The aim of this thesis is to improve understanding about the criteria used to compare the destinations people consider visiting.

Literature pertinent to the positioning of tourism destinations and destination choice models is reviewed. To extend the contribution provided by others, a new model of destination choice is proposed and partially tested. The objective is to provide a model that incorporates some features relating to positioning which have been neglected in previous destination selection models. The new model explicitly incorporates positioning analysis into a model of how destinations are selected. This model extends the contributions of previous models by integrating determinants of the positioning of destinations disregarded in other models, as well as by empirically testing proposed interrelationships between determinants that have been previously neglected. The revised model also suggests that the influence of determinants of positioning may change across the process of selecting destinations.

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List of abbreviations

AR – Autonomous Region

CCS – City Council of Sintra

EU – European Union

DGT – General Directorate for Tourism (Portugal)

IC - Complementary itinerary (Portugal)

LD – Law Decree

ICN – Nature Conservation Institute (Portugal)

NUTS – Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics

PNPG – National Park of Peneda-Gerês (Portugal)

INE – National Institute for Statistics (Portugal)

IPPAR – Portuguese Institute of Architectonic Heritage (Portugal)

IUCN – World Conservation Union

RD – Regulation Decree

UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

WTO – World Tourism Organization

WTTC – World Travel and Tourism Council

Operational definitions

Attractions (tourism attractions) - "elements within the destination's environment which, individually and combined, serve as the primary motivation for tourist visits" (Middleton, 1989).

Consideration sets – groups of destinations that people consider visiting and that they elaborate in their minds (adapted from Woodside and Lysonski, 1989).

- **Early consideration set** – destinations that a traveller is considering as possible destinations to visit within some period (adapted from Crompton and Ankomah, 1993).
- **Late consideration set** - destinations that a traveller is considering as probable destinations to visit within some period (adapted from Botha *et al.*, 1999). According to Crompton (1992), this set corresponds to the destinations remaining from the early consideration set after some reduction process takes place.

Constraints – correspond to barriers that, if not successfully negotiated, may prevent tourists from visiting a specific destination or enforce tourists to make this visit in an altered manner (adapted from Jackson *et al.*, 1993, p.8 and Jackson and Scott, 1999, p.309). The potential impact of constraints is not confined to the imposition of barriers to visiting a destination, but may also encompass a change of tourists' preferences (adapted from Crawford and Godbey, 1987). Constraints may (i) intervene between a preference for an activity and participation in that activity; (ii) influence preferences; or (iii) affect preferences and participation simultaneously) (adapted from Crawford and Godbey, 1987).

- **Intrapersonal constraints** – individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences rather than intervening between preferences and participation (e.g. stress, depression, anxiety, religiosity, kin and non-kin reference group attitudes, prior socialization into specific leisure activities, perceived self-skill) (adapted from Crawford and Godbey, 1987, p.122).
- **Interpersonal constraints** – barriers that are the result of interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals' characteristics (e.g. barriers which accompany

spouses into a marital relationship, barriers which arise as the result of spousal interaction) (adapted from Crawford and Godbey, 1987, p.123).

- **Structural constraints** – intervening factors between leisure preference and participation (e.g. family life-cycle stage, family financial resources, season, climate, the scheduling of work time) (adapted from Crawford and Godbey, 1987, p.124).

Facilities that support the tourism development – "elements located in the destination or linked to it, which make it possible for visitors to stay and in other ways enjoy and participate in the attractions" (Middleton and Clarke, 2001).

Familiarity with a destination – experiences related to the destinations (e.g. number of previous visits made to the destinations) and neighbourhood links with the destination (related to the distance people live from the destination) (adapted from Alba and Hutchinson (1987) and Prentice and Andersen (2000)).

Information acquisition – "the set of activities or means by which consumers are exposed to various environmental stimuli and begin to process them" (adapted from Loudon and Bitta (1988)).

- **Passive acquisition of information** – is the process by which "information is acquired in passing, with little effort on the part of the consumer" (adapted from Assael, 1998, p.244).
- **Active acquisition of information** – is the process by which consumers acquire information as a result of some search effort they make.
- **Strength of information search about a destination** – the effort a tourist spent searching for information about a destination, measured in terms of: (1) the number of attributes for which information was sought; (2) the number of different types of information sources consulted; and (3) the amount of time spent acquiring information about the destination (adapted from the definition of degree of search suggested by Engel *et al.* (1990)).
- **Strength of information search for acquiring information about a destination from a specific information source** – the time a tourist spent acquiring information about a destination from this specific information source.

- **Direction of search for acquiring information about a destination** – the type of information sources consulted to obtain information about a destination (adapted from the definition of direction of search suggested by Engel *et al.* (1990)).

Involvement with a destination – the level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a destination when choosing a place to visit for a vacation, measured in terms of:

(i) the perceived importance of the destination;

(ii) the perceived risk associated with the purchases made in order to visit the destination for a vacation (encompassing the perceived importance of negative consequences in the case of poor choice and the perceived probability of making such a mistake);

(iii) the symbolic or sign value attributed by a tourist to the destination, or to visiting this destination; and

(iv) the hedonic value of the destination, which embraces its emotional appeal and its ability to provide pleasure and affect.

(The definition was adapted from Antil (1984) and the operationalization of it was adapted from Laurent and Kapferer (1985)).

Moderator variable – variable that influences the interaction between other variables, either increasing or decreasing the impact that one of the variables has on the other.

Motivation - refers to motivation as a state or driving force that pushes people towards a certain action. This action has the objective of reducing individuals' states of tension and of bringing them satisfaction (adapted from Kotler *et al.* (1999) and Moutinho (1987)).

Positioning – is the process of identifying a position in potential tourists' minds which is both different from the positions of competitor destinations and valuable to tourists. It requires the integrated use of all the elements of the marketing mix to achieve the desired position (this definition was adapted to the scope of this thesis, and was based on the definitions suggested by Boyd and Walker (1990); Moutinho (1995) and Kotler (1997)).

Situational variable – variable that is particular to a specific time and place of observation and whose influence is independent of the tourist and the characteristics of alternate destinations (adapted from Belks' definition of situation (1975)).

CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

1.1. OBJECTIVES

There is growing awareness of the importance of tourism activity. The impacts of tourism are recognised worldwide. According to data from the World Tourism Organization (WTO, 2006), international tourism arrivals exceeded 800 million in 2005. In 2020, WTO forecasts that there will be 1,6 billion tourism international arrivals worldwide (WTO, 2006a).

Tourism is a very important sector of the economy in Portugal. In 2004, in Portugal, international tourism arrivals reached 11,6 million (WTO, 2006). By that time, Portugal ranked 19th place on the list of countries for international tourism arrivals. Portugal accounted for 35.5 million bednights in hotel establishments in 2005 (General Directorate for Tourism (DGT, 2006). In the same year, tourism receipts amounted by 6307.4 million euros (DGT, 2006).

Nevertheless, one of the issues that has characterised the development of tourism in the last decade and that has had a high impact on the evolution of the tourism sector is the growing intensity of competition (Poon, 1993; Moutinho 2000). Increased competition creates challenges for tourism services providers. In response, there was a proliferation of alternate strategies of competition, based on high quality supply; low cost services; or on offers which add value to potential customers. This reality has been reflected at the level of tourism destinations, with destination competitiveness becoming an important issue. One outcome has been the increased investment in tourism promotion which is intended to influence the decisions of potential visitors' choice of tourism destinations.

Widely recognised authors, such as Porter (1980, 1985, 1990), have researched the issue of competitiveness, identifying sources of competitive advantage and strategies that could be developed to increase an organization's competitiveness. The growing awareness of the

importance of tourism destinations' competitiveness has resulted in an increase in research on the topic. This research is not as developed in tourism as in other fields (Kozak, 2004), but is emerging. One example is the work of Dwyer and Kim (2003), who identified determinants and indicators of destinations' competitiveness that may be used to compare tourism destinations. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) created an interesting model that explicitly identifies factors that determine destinations' competitiveness and the relationships that exist among them. Similarly, noteworthy is the work done by Kozak (2004) seeking to identify attributes that are important to destination benchmarking.

Concern with assessing destinations' competitiveness extends to institutions such as the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (2006) which created a competitiveness monitor comprised of several indices based on socio-economic data. These indices facilitate comparison with countries from all over the world on issues of tourism development and of a destination's potential for tourism development. The indices measure (WTTC, 2006):

(i) price competitiveness;
(ii) human development in terms of tourism activity;
(iii) infrastructure;
(iv) environment;
(v) technology;
(vi) human resources;
(vii) openness to tourism; and
(viii) social issues (e.g. access to daily newspapers, access to TV sets).

As Poon (1993) remarks, with the increase of competition one of the main challenges is to be able to identify the needs and wants of customers and to understand how they assess competing products. One of the main limitations of studies on destinations' competitiveness is that perceptions of customers frequently are overlooked.

Although there has been growing interest in analysing the process used for selecting tourism destinations, there is a limited understanding of the way people compare, assess and select the tourism destinations they consider visiting. Consequently, it is difficult to

know why people decide to visit some destinations instead of others that they also considered. Studies of the positioning of tourism destinations facilitate understanding of how potential visitors assess destinations against competitors. Such studies may offer insights on why potential visitors, in the process of planning a trip, choose to visit some destinations instead of others.

The objectives of this thesis are:

(1) To propose a model of selection of tourism destinations that explicitly incorporates the positioning of destinations during the selection process. The objective is to understand how visitors compare and assess destinations, and why they select some destinations and decide not to visit others. The intention is to create a destination choice model that extends the contributions of previous models.

(2) To analyse the influence of familiarity with destinations, involvement with destinations, and constraints to travel to destinations, on the search for information about destinations during stages of the elaboration of consideration sets;

(3) To determine the impact of strength of information search in the formation of destination image during the evolution of consideration sets;

(4) To identify the significant differences that exist between destinations in different consideration sets;

(5) To analyse the influence of constraints to travel to destinations, the image of destinations, and strength and direction of information search on the positioning of tourism destinations into different consideration sets.

The next section provides an overview of the methodology followed to accomplish the objectives mentioned above.

1.2. METHODOLOGY

In order to create the new positioning model, the literature relating to positioning and destination choice was reviewed. This process began with an analysis of literature on the conceptualisation of positioning. One proceeded with a review of methodologies used by

others to assess the positioning of destinations, empirical studies on destinations' positioning, and of destination choice models. The objective was to identify, both the methodologies that may be used to assess the positioning of destinations and to identify potential determinants of the positioning of destinations.

After identifying potential determinants of the positioning of tourism destinations, literature was reviewed that reported the type of influence each determinant is likely to have on the positioning of destinations in the process of destination choice. The aim was to ascertain the influence of these determinants on the way visitors assess destinations, compare them, and suggest how they influence the destination(s) considered for a visit. Based on the literature reviewed, a destination choice model was proposed.

A variety of statistical procedures was used to test hypotheses emanating from the new model. These hypotheses were tested using two samples of visitors to two different sites. Testing the hypotheses with two samples made it possible to verify if there was consistency in the findings among samples visiting different destinations. The statistical procedures used were mainly: independent-samples t tests; paired-samples t tests; chi-square analyses; factor analyses; cluster analyses; anovas; linear and logistic regressions.

The next section provides a brief description of thesis' structure including an explanation of the objectives and issues examined in each chapter.

1.3. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The first chapter identifies the main objectives of the thesis; the methodology adopted to reach them; and the thesis' organisation. The thesis is divided into three parts. Part 1 (chapters 2 to 5) consists of literature reviews of the themes of central interest to the thesis. Part 2 (chapters 6 to 8) focuses on methodology. It includes a description of the model which is proposed and the methodology used in the empirical test of the proposed model. Part 3 (chapters 9 to 11) consists of analysis and discussion of the findings of the empirical study.

Since one of the objectives of this thesis is to analyse the influence of selected factors in the positioning of tourism destinations during the formation of consideration sets, chapter 2 begins with a discussion of the concept of positioning. The importance of assessing the position of destinations is suggested. Another objective of the second chapter is to identify methodologies that have been used to assess the position of tourism destinations. To accomplish this, a literature review, which includes empirical research on destinations' positioning, is carried out.

The thesis proceeds, in chapter 3, with a review of the most prominent models of a tourist's destination selection process. The chapter reviews these models and analyses the importance and role attributed in them to positioning. Another goal is to identify factors that may determine the positioning of the destinations throughout the process of selecting a destination to visit – the determinants of positioning.

Chapter 4 reviews the type of influence exerted by each selected determinant of positioning in the positioning of alternate destinations throughout the process of destination choice. The determinants considered are:

(i) familiarity with the destination;
(ii) motivations to visit the destination;
(iii) perceptions about the attractions and facilities at the destination;
(iv) structural constraints to travel to the destinations; and
(v) information search.

In addition to their conceptualisation and operationalization, the type of effect these determinants may have in the positioning of the destinations is discussed together with their potential changes as the process of planning a trip evolves.

Since information may play an important role in the positioning of destinations, chapter 5 reviews literature relating to the influence of familiarity, involvement and constraints to travel to destinations on information search.

The second part of the thesis – chapters 6 to 8 – focuses on methodology. In chapter 6, a new destination selection model is proposed. The new model was created based on the findings of the literature review. A central characteristic of the model is positioning and an explanation of the role of selected determinants of positioning. The model also recognizes that the influence of selected determinants of a destination's position may change during the destination selection process.

In chapters 7 and 8, the methodology adopted for the empirical testing is explained. Chapter 7 focus on the sites at which the questionnaire was administered. There is an explanation of the rationale used to select the sites, and their tourism characteristics. In chapter 8, development of the questionnaire and the sampling procedure are described.

Part 3 (chapters 9 to 11) discusses the empirical elements of the study. The results are presented in chapters 9 and 10, while the main conclusions are presented in chapter 11. Chapter 9 provides a description of the profile of the sample in terms of:

(i) socio-demographic characteristics;
(ii) behaviour during the trip;
(iii) tourism destinations considered while planning the trip;
(iii) involvement and familiarity with the destinations;
(iv) perceived constraints to travel to the destinations;
(v) information search to collect information about destinations; and
(vi) perceptions about push and pull factors of destinations.

The samples of the two geographical areas where the study was carried out – Gerês National Park and Sintra-Cascais Natural Park – are compared using independent-samples t tests and chi-square tests.

In chapter 10, the hypotheses arising from the new model are tested. The hypotheses relate to: (i) the influence exerted by the determinants of positioning; and (ii) the evolution of positioning during the process of selecting destinations. These hypotheses are tested in the two samples from the two areas where the study was carried out. The intention was to verify whether there is consistency between the results obtained in both areas. The

statistical techniques used to test the hypotheses include paired-samples t tests, chi-square analyses, cluster analyses, and regression analyses. The chapter ends with a discussion of the findings of the empirical study, and identifies some of study's limitations.

In chapter 11, the main findings of the thesis are reviewed and suggestions for further research are provided.

PART I – LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 2 – THE POSITIONING CONCEPT AND THE ASSESSMENT OF POSITIONING OF TOURISM DESTINATIONS

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The literature is reviewed and conceptualisations of positioning proposed by several authors are discussed. Methodologies are identified that may be used to develop strategies for effectively positioning a destination in potential visitors' minds. In order to accomplish this, literature from both tourism and other fields was reviewed. An objective of this chapter is to identify the primary methodologies and, specifically, the statistical analyses that may be adopted to measure the position of a tourism destination in potential visitors' minds. This issue is discussed based on general literature on positioning but, subsequently, a literature review of empirical studies undertaken in the field of positioning of destinations is carried out.

2.2. EVOLUTION OF THE CONCEPT OF POSITIONING

In recent decades, research in tourism has been marked by a proliferation of research in the field of destination image (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Gartner, 1993; Walmsley and Young, 1998; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Baloglu, 2000; Bigné *et al.*, 2001; Gallarza *et al.*, 2002; Pike, 2002; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Boo and Busser, 2005). As Kotler *et al.* (1993, p.141) and Crompton (1979a, p.18) contend, destination image may be defined as the "sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person holds of a destination". Similarly, Embacher and Buttle (1989) stated that image is composed of "ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination". In proposing a definition for destination image, some authors (e.g. Fakeye and Crompton, 1991) noted that an image is formed from

only few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions to which individuals are exposed. Image is a complex construct, being formed by several components – cognitive, affective and conative (Gartner, 1993) – or dimensions – e.g. functional and psychological dimensions (Echtner and Ritchie, 1993).

There has been a proliferation of literature addressing different aspects of destination image, for example: (i) image formation (Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Gallarza *et al.*, 2002; Beerli and Martín, 2004; Boo and Busser, 2005); (ii) assessment of destination image (Walmsley and Young, 1998; Echtner and Ritchie, 1993; Gartner, 1993; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Gallarza *et al.*, 2002; Pike, 2002); and (iii) impacts of image on behaviour (Baloglu, 2000; Bigné *et al.*, 2001). However, most of these studies focus on perceptions of only a single destination. In the tourism sector, characterized by intense competition, positioning studies of tourism destinations, where potential visitors assess the performance of destinations against competing destinations are increasingly perceived as being useful.

The concept of positioning emerged in the marketing field in 1972, in a series of articles written by Ries and Trout in Advertising Age, and subsequently was further developed by these authors in their book "Positioning - The Battle for your Mind" (1986). The authors of this concept recognized the inherent difficulty of consumers in absorbing promotional information targeted at them because of the "noise" in our overcommunicated society. Ries and Trout (1986) considered positioning to be a new approach to communication "for the purpose of securing a worthwhile position in the prospects' minds" (p.2). The authors perceived it to be a promotional tool, stating that: "positioning is not what you do to your product. Positioning is what you do to the mind of the prospect. That is, you position the product in the mind of the prospect" (Ries and Trout, 1986). This association was endorsed by other authors such as Ennis (1982), who perceived positioning as an effective idea for selling a product to consumers. The major emphasis of positioning definitions was on "getting a position in people's minds" (Ries and Trout, 1986).

According to Wind (1982), positioning is related to the place that a product occupies in a specific market. He recognized that concepts such as "the competitive position of a

company in the market" and "product differentiation" had been adopted in the fields of economics and marketing, but suggested this "new perspective" of positioning focused on consumers' perceptions and, thus, was related to the notion of "image".

A position reflects consumers' perceptions about a product's performance on specific attributes in comparison to its competitors (Lovelock, 1984). This definition of "position" incorporates an important principle of positioning, that is, the frame of reference is the competition. Thus, a position in consumers' minds is a consequence of how they assess a product, service or organization against its competitors. According to Aaker and Shansby (1982), this comparative frame of reference is the feature that differentiates "positioning" from "image".

The notion that a position in customers' minds can only be changed through promotion, was subsequently criticized by others (Lovelock, 1984; Urban and Star, 1991). Nowadays, it is widely accepted that position may be influenced by all of the variables of the marketing mix (product, price, distribution and promotion) (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Lovelock, 1984; Lamb, 1994; Kotler, 1997). This perspective is incorporated in many contemporary definitions of positioning in which it is identified as the outcome of a "specific marketing mix" (Lamb, 1994, p.186), "the act of formulating a competitive position for the product (…) and (…) a subsequent detailed marketing mix" (Moutinho, 1995, p.325) and "the act of designing a company's offering and image" (Kotler, 1997, p.295). Aaker and Shansby (1982) refer to positioning as a decision involving identification of associations to be created, emphasized, removed or de-emphasized. However, they recognize these associations may be changed by any of the four marketing mix elements. There is now general consensus that positioning is the concept that guides the development of marketing mix strategies (e.g. Assael, 1985). For example, Kotler (1997, p.298) remarks that developing a marketing mix involves "working out tactical details of the positioning strategy".

As positioning has evolved from the relatively limited role of a promotional concept to being a central strategic driving force in marketing, attempts have been made to specify the

characteristics of a "worthwhile position" in a prospect's mind (the expression used by Ries and Trout, 1986). Some early definitions of positioning stated that the position in consumers' minds must be different from the positions of competitors. For example, Lovelock (1984, p.134) defined positioning as a "process of establishing and maintaining a distinctive place in the market for an organization and/or its individual product offerings".

Later definitions also have incorporated the notion that a position must have value to consumers. Thus, Boyd and Walker (1990) argued that marketing positioning requires creating a product and a marketing program that consumers find desirable, and which, simultaneously, provides a differential advantage to the firm in relation to competitors. This perspective, that a successful position must be different from the positions of competitors and bring value to consumers, is in accordance with Wind's (1982) perspective that positioning is not only determined by consumers' perceptions but also by their preferences. Thus, the achievement of a successful position requires a differentiation from competitors on attributes that are important to consumers (Wind, 1982). Considering the relationship that exists between positioning and human behaviour, Wind (1982) remarks that, in the context of positioning, the concept of position has three meanings:

- a place: the place that the product occupies in the market;
- a rank: how the product fares against its competitors;
- a mental attitude: the consumer's attitude toward the given product.

Expressing a similar view to that of Wind (1982) and Boyd and Walker (1990), Kotler (1997, p.295) identified positioning as "the act of designing the company's offerings and image so that they occupy a meaningful and distinctive competitive position in the target customers' minds". As a guide to operationalizing this definition of positioning, Kotler (1997, pp.294-295) specified seven characteristics that positions must possess. He suggested positions must be:

- "important: the difference delivers a highly valued benefit to a sufficient number of buyers;
- distinctive: the difference either isn't offered by others or is offered in a more distinctive way by the company;

- superior: the difference is superior to other ways of obtaining the same benefit;
- communicable: the difference is communicable and visible to buyers;
- preemptive: the difference cannot be easily copied by competitors;
- affordable: the buyer can afford to pay for the difference;
- profitable: the company will find it profitable to introduce the difference".

The most significant contribution of this specification of characteristics is the inclusion of some features which are not referenced in most other definitions of positioning, such as: assuring that positions created are communicable, profitable to companies, and not easy for competitors to copy.

The concept of positioning has evolved, with the two main modifications in the concept being the broadening of its scope, and the clarification of key characteristics needed to establish a desired position in consumers' minds. In relation to scope, positioning has evolved from being confined to promotion, to being defined by all the variables of the marketing mix. The specification of the characteristics of a position has emphasized the need to provide value to consumers; to ensure that positions may be communicated; to differentiate them from competitors in a way that is not easily copied; and to ensure that positions are profitable to the organizations.

The concept of positioning has been widely embraced in tourism. It was first introduced in the context of destinations by Ries and Trout (1986) and dates from their work in the early 1970's. They provided suggestions on how to successfully position destinations, using Belgium and Jamaica to illustrate their points. They provided several suggestions on the possible strategies to adopt in order to reach a successful position, such as: being the first to enter a given market; to dislodge the competitors that already have a good position in the consumer's mind; to relate the brand to a competitor brand that has a good position; and to find and occupy a position in customers' minds that is not occupied by other competitors. In the case of Jamaica, Ries and Trout (1986) advocated that this destination should be positioned by establishing an association with Hawaii through suggesting a similarity of images that potential visitors possess in relation to Hawaii and

Jamaica. They propose the positioning of Jamaica as "the Hawaii of the Caribbean" (p.146) in order to differentiate Jamaica from other Caribbean destinations.

The concept of effective positioning subsequently has been widely supported, either implicitly or explicitly, by many researchers in the tourism field (Lewis, 1981; Calantone and Mazanec, 1991; Dev *et al.*, 1995; Moutinho, 1995; Luckett *et al.*, 1999). Calantone and Mazanec (1991) and Moutinho (1995) were among the authors who explicitly supported the concept. Calantone and Mazanec (1991, p.109) considered positioning to be a dynamic process that encompasses the identification and development of product attributes that are able to assure a competitive advantage in relation to competitors. Moutinho (1995), one of the most prominent researchers in tourism positioning, defined a desired position as "one that clearly distinguishes a tourist product from its competition on attributes considered important by the relevant market segment" (p.328).

Tourism researchers have supported a broad view of positioning, rather then confining it to the promotional area. The potential influence of all the variables of the marketing mix on a product's positioning has been widely recognized in tourism (Laws, 1991; Moutinho, 1995; Luckett *et al.*, 1999). Moutinho (1995, p.325), for example, states that product positioning encompasses the identification of "a competitive position for the tourism product", and also the formulation of the "subsequent detailed marketing mix".

Based on this review of marketing literature and the prevailing perspective of positioning in the tourism literature, this thesis proposes a revised operational definition of positioning which attempts to incorporate the main characteristics of this process: positioning is the process of identifying a position in potential tourists' minds which is both different from the positions of competitor destinations and valuable to tourists, and requires the integrated use of all the elements of the marketing mix to achieve the desired position. This definition of positioning will be used in this thesis.

A major **reason underlying the interest in positioning in the tourism field** is an increasing recognition that positioning analyses, which offer insights on how consumers

regard products or companies in relation to competitors, may be similarly useful in identifying how visitors select tourism destinations. The decisions that people make when they decide to travel include selecting destinations, attractions or facilities from among a set of several competing opportunities. Thus, tourists are required to compare alternatives based on their perceptions. Recognition of the useful guidelines positioning analyses may provide to direct effective tourism development and promotional strategies, has been a major reason for the growing attention assigned to positioning (Javalgi *et al*, 1992; Calantone *et al.*, 1989). Positioning has been considered as a crucial tool in the development of successful products in the scope of tourism (Seaton and Bennett, 1996). Positioning research is now regarded as a major tool in efforts to increase tourism visitation. Woodside (1982, p.5) identified the criterion for assessing its effectiveness: "the use of a positioning strategy is supported or refuted by the number of visitations and amount of revenues produced".

A growing recognition that the success of tourism destinations, tourism attractions and tourism facilities is defined not only by images in tourists' minds but, rather, is dependent on the relative strength of the competition, also contributed to the increased prominence of positioning in the tourism field. The central role of positioning research is well illustrated by Crompton (1999), in the context of parks and recreation, who states that although most park and recreation agencies have a positive image in their communities, this does not translate into increased resources because the services of competitor agencies often are perceived to be more important to residents.

Research in the tourism field has long embraced a view of the potential benefits of positioning analysis that goes beyond its potential role in increasing direct economic gains. For example, in 1982, the understanding of tourists' decision making processes and the use of promotion were considered by Mathieson and Wall to be useful tools for forecasting travel patterns, directing tourism flows to selected destinations and diverting them from areas which had already reached saturation, thus preventing or reducing negative tourism impacts.

2.3. DEVELOPING POSITIONING STRATEGIES AND APPROACHES FOR ASSESSING THE POSITION OF DESTINATIONS

Several authors have suggested **approaches for developing positioning strategies**. The first stage of these approaches usually consists of evaluating the current position that a product or service holds against competitors. Subsequent steps are described in this section.

An early simple approach was proposed by Ennis (1982), who identifies three steps in selecting a positioning concept: category positioning, selling positioning, and commercial positioning. First, category positioning has to take place, that is, a decision must be made about the category in which a brand will compete. Then, taking into account the category selected, a selling position is needed, in order to choose the best selling idea for promoting the brand in the market. This choice involves selecting one of the positioning approaches suggested by Ennis (1982) that are presented later in this section, which enable a brand to achieve a desired position. Finally, commercial positioning involves selecting the most appropriate way to communicate an idea to a target market. The method is conceptually simple, but it offers few operational guidelines for directing the procedures needed especially in the first and third stages. This method also is limited to establishing a position through promotion. Thus, decisions related to positioning are restricted to selection of an idea to sell the product and of a way to communicate it to the market.

Another simple positioning strategy, also comprised of three steps, was advocated by Cravens (1997). This strategy is focused on the target market and, consequently, the first step is the selection of a product meaning – the positioning concept – based on the needs of the target market. Then, a positioning strategy, representing a combination of marketing mix strategies, is developed in order to present the positioning concept to the target market. Finally, an assessment of the position's effectiveness is required to determine if the objectives of the management are being achieved in the target market. Although Cravens (1997) doesn't make an explicit reference to the choice of the category in which the brand

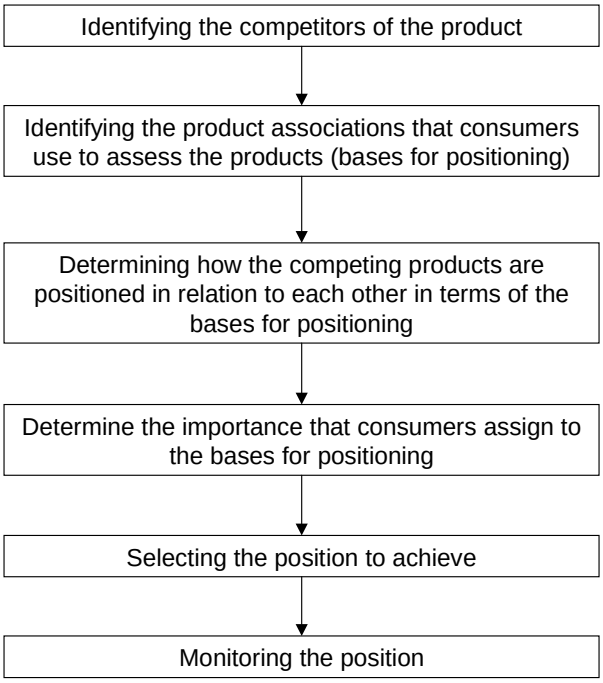
is going to compete, his positioning strategy extends that advocated by Ennis (1982) in two ways:

- the scope of this strategy is not confined to promotion, encompassing actions related to any of the variables of the marketing mix;
- the result of the strategy is monitored.

Several other authors have referred to the importance of monitoring, recognizing that product and companies' images that consumers hold may change across time (Lovelock, 1984; Urban and Star, 1991).

The most prominent method for developing positioning strategies, which has been embraced by the marketing literature, is that proposed by Aaker and Myers (1987) (figure 2.1.). It was originally developed by Aaker and Shansby (1982).

Figure 2.1. - Method for developing positioning strategies proposed by Aaker and Myers



Source: Based on Aaker and Myers (1987)

In the first stage, competitors are identified, which can be done by detecting the brands that consumers buy or those brands that are used in similar situations. After identifying the competition, the way consumers evaluate competing brands must be determined, which involves identification of the most relevant product associations in a brand's selection. Aaker and Myers (1987) consider that these product associations correspond to attributes used in brand assessment, and they may include service characteristics, customer benefits, service users and service uses. The third stage is to identify how competitors are positioned in relation to each other, with respect to the attributes considered by consumers. At this stage, an analysis of the market should be made in order to better comprehend how the market is segmented. According to Aaker and Myers (1987), a useful approach is to segment the market according to the importance consumers attach to attributes used in brand evaluation. Then, a decision has to be made in relation to selection of the position to achieve in the market. This decision involves the choice of market segments in which the brand will compete. The choice should consider its potential size and the penetration probability of the brand in those segments. Aaker and Myers (1987) also advise taking symbols into account, to avoid both selecting a position that does not correspond to the characteristics of the brand, and unnecessary changes in advertising so as not to create a confused image of the brand. The authors advise that the position should be monitored in future years, in order to assess effectiveness of the positioning strategy and to identify any need for repositioning.

Other authors, like Urban and Star (1991), put a major emphasis on identification of the information needed for making decisions about positioning strategies and, consequently, only identified the steps necessary for a positioning analysis. According to these authors, to design a positioning strategy, information is needed on: the features consumers use to evaluate competing marketing programs; the importance of each feature in the decision process; how the company being positioned compares to its competition; and how consumers make choices on the basis of information mentioned above. Since acquisition of this information is greatly dependent on the tasks performed in the first steps of Aaker and Myers' positioning strategy, Urban and Star (1991) seem, at least partially, to support this strategy.

The approach advocated by Aaker and Myers (1987) places great emphasis on the market analysis, which is a critical framework of reference in developing a positioning strategy. However, in the context of positioning organizations, some authors (e.g. Lovelock, 1984) have emphasized the importance of complementing the external market research with an internal analysis of the organization which provides the product and an investigation of its competitors. The internal analysis of the organization should include identification of (i) its resources (e.g. financial, human resources); (ii) its values and (iii) constraints associated with positioning strategy development (Lovelock, 1984). The outcome of this analysis is especially important for determining the organization's potential target markets; for ensuring the organization will have the resources needed to develop the selected positioning strategy; and to guarantee that positioning will match the organization's values. The competitor analysis encompasses identification of competitors' strengths and weaknesses, which can aid in selecting sources for differentiation and in ensuring that a selected positioning strategy cannot easily be copied by competitors (Lovelock, 1984).

Doyle and Saunders (1985) proposed a positioning strategy that, similar to Lovelock (1984), highlighted an analysis of the company and of its competitors, but was not as specific as Aaker and Myers' strategy (1987) concerning the market analysis. Doyle and Saunders (1985) suggest beginning the development of a positioning strategy by defining management's market and financial objectives and determining market segments. The third phase of the strategy encompasses evaluation of the attractiveness of market segments, capabilities of the firm to operate in the market segments, and competitors' goals and capabilities. In the following stage, target markets are selected based on the results of the analysis. Selection of the target markets is followed by a decision on how to compete in those markets. The two last steps correspond to the implementation of the marketing mix selected and to using market research to evaluate the marketing plan.

The approaches for developing positioning strategies evolved in two ways:

(i) their scope evolved beyond promotion, to include implementation of all the variables of the marketing mix;

(ii) emphasis was given to monitoring results of positioning strategies, so they become dynamic.

At this time, there appear to be two approaches to defining a product's position. The first focuses on market analysis, and gives little consideration to analysis of the actions of companies competing in the market (e.g. Aaker and Myers data). In contrast, the second focuses on determining the objectives of companies competing in the market and on assessing their capabilities in order to identify an optimum position (e.g. Doyle and Saunders, 1985).

All the strategies discussed in the previous paragraphs stress the importance of establishing a successful position in a market, but they are dependent on an ability to attain the desired position. Efforts to identify an optimum position have lead to discussions about the **potential bases for positioning**.

In 1982, Ennis (p.262) proposed three potential bases for positioning:

- product positioning attributes: "selling ideas that are based on some unique attribute that is inherent, and easily recognizable, in the composition of the product's formula, design, package, efficacy or price" (e.g. a faster train; a clean beach; good access from a hotel to a beach).
- consumer positioning benefits: "selling ideas that refer to the unique manner in which the consumer is to perceive the product, regardless of its physical composition or performance characteristics" (e.g. a park's calm environment; the wonderful view to the sea that a hotel possesses).
- combination approach: both attributes and benefits are used; usually, a reference to attributes is used to reinforce the selling ideas associated with benefits.

Any of the approaches to positioning could be accomplished with either attributes or benefits, and more than one attribute or benefit could be used to do it. The bases may refer to attributes and benefits that are tangibly obvious, or to attributes and benefits that are psychologically perceived by consumers. This classification has the virtue of being relatively simple because of its small number of categories. However, the simplicity is

somewhat deceptive because sometimes it is not easy to distinguish a perceived attribute and/or benefit from an obvious tangible one.

The authors most cited in discussions of bases for positioning are Aaker and Myers (1987) and Wind (1982). In addition to their classifications offering more types of bases for positioning than Ennis (1982), the differences between the alternate bases they offer are easier to understand. Because the approaches of Aaker and Myers (1987) and Wind (1982) are similar, they are described together:

- positioning by specific attributes or benefits: to associate a service with an attribute or a customer benefit (e.g. a hotel's large range of sporting facilities; a cruise's exciting environment). These two approaches are differentiated by Wind, who states that positioning by benefits is usually more effective than positioning by attribute without referring to potential benefit. The useful and pervasive character of the variables of price and quality led Aaker and Myers (1987) to distinguish it from the other positioning approaches based on attributes or benefits. The most common methods for positioning using price and quality are: the application of a high price in order to create an association with high quality, or the offering of a low price, emphasizing the good value of services. A potential problem of this latter approach is the association of "low price" with "low quality".
- positioning by use or application: to associate a service with a specific use or application (e.g. a package tour for students who are finishing high school).
- positioning by service user: to associate a service with a user or a class of users (e.g. a park for adventure tourists).
- positioning by service class: to associate a service with a service class (e.g. the most luxurious five star hotels). The creation of associations with service classes is emphasized by Aaker and Myers (1987), while Wind (1982) focuses on the establishment of dissociations in relation to service classes. In spite of being a less common positioning approach, the latter method may be of greater value when launching a service which differs from typical services in a given category (Wind, 1982).

- positioning against a competitor (e.g. an airline claims better service than its major competitor). Besides competition always being a framework reference in positioning, this kind of approach uses explicit or implicit reference to competitors to establish a position in tourists' minds. In positioning strategies, reference to the competition may be used to make users of competitors' services buy the brand being positioned or to create a specific image for this brand using competitors as a point of reference (Wind, 1982). This approach may be of great value when services are difficult to evaluate (Aaker and Myers, 1987).
- positioning by cultural symbols: to associate a service with cultural symbols that are meaningful to people (e.g. advertising some Portuguese destinations using rural houses and people with traditional rural clothes helps to create an image of these destinations as rural destinations). This approach is considered only by Aaker and Myers (1987).
- positioning by applying a combination of more than one of the above approaches: to use different kinds of bases (selecting from those already mentioned) in the same positioning strategy. This approach was implicit in Aaker and Myers' classification (1987), and explicit in Wind's classification (1982).

An important feature of this classification is the reference to positioning based on competitors, which was not explicitly considered in Ennis' classification. The frameworks offered by Aaker and Myers (1987) and Wind (1982) are more comprehensive and useful approaches than that suggested by Ennis (1982), since they offer a wide range of alternate bases that are easy to understand and to differentiate from each other.

Burnett (1993) suggests a different approach to classifying bases for positioning. His taxonomy includes the category of goodwill which was not included in any of the classifications described earlier. However, Burnett doesn't explicitly take into account cultural symbols, and he collapses all the other categories of bases proposed by Aaker and Myers (1987) and Wind (1982), except the competition base, into the single category of consumer positioning. Thus, the three bases for positioning offered by Burnett (1993) are:

- consumer positioning. This category consists of four types of bases focused on the consumer which:

(i) stress the target market in order to appeal to a specific segment of consumers or a larger group of segments;
(ii) emphasize a type of appeal;
(iii) focus on specific usage occasions or functions of the service (e.g. a package tour advertised as appropriate for a week vacation); or
(iv) associate the service with a user category (e.g. to advertise a national park as being appropriate for those interested in observing birds).

An explicit explanation about the way positioning by type of appeal may be established is not provided, but Burnett (1993) suggests that benefits may be used to achieve it. The difference between type of appeal and positioning by target market may not always be clear, since appealing to a target market may also involve establishing a link with service benefits or attributes. The main difference between positioning by user category and target market seems to be that in the former the target market is explicitly mentioned, while in the latter this reference is not explicit.

- competitive positioning - based on reference to competition. Burnett (1993) advises not to copy competitors and offers suggestions for competitive approaches that may be effective, such as:
  (i) the underdog position in which an organization acknowledges not being the leader in a category but tries to derive benefits from the position it occupies in the category (e.g. a hotel chain advertising that because it recognizes it is not the leader in its category the chain is making extra efforts to improve in order to achieve this position);
  (ii) the ugly or unpleasant position, which involves acknowledging a negative feature (e.g. a hotel which acknowledges it is not as close to the beach as its competitors but claims to have better service than all other hotels in the region which more than compensates for its disadvantageous location); and
  (iii) the repositioning of competitors (e.g. a cruise company tries to achieve a better position by changing the perception consumers have about competitors).
- social accountability positioning: the organization is associated with goodwill, that is it fosters an image as a good community citizen in the way it relates to the

environment, people, the community and social problems (e.g. a hotel chain emphasizing its policies/practices for environmental protection, like using recycled paper and having special sewage systems that don't pollute the environment).

The major contribution of Burnett's classification is the inclusion of goodwill as a base for positioning. However, the author's description of social accountability positioning is too broad, because it allows for inclusion of several different kinds of approaches. The consumer positioning approach also embraces multiple bases, some of which may be difficult to differentiate from each other.

The importance of symbolism and functionality in positioning seems to be pervasive. It was explicit in Ennis' (1982) classification and implicit in other categorizations advocating the possibility of using attributes or benefits to position a product (Wind, 1982; Aaker and Myers, 1987). In the context of globalisation, Domzal and Unger (1987) proposed a classification of products along a "high-tech/high-touch" continuum and suggested using this dichotomy as a basis for positioning. The users of products at the high-tech pole of the continuum share a common language and are frequently high-involved. High-touch products differ from high-tech products in that they are more image than product-focused; rely more on image than on specialized information; and are more linked to emotive motivations than to logical motivations (Domzal and Unger, 1987). The authors suggest that the most efficient positioning strategies to achieve worldwide brand standardization are those that move a brand toward either one or both ends of the "high-tech/high-touch" spectrum. Suggested actions for moving a brand towards the high-tech pole include: use of informative advertising; product demonstration; emphasis on product-features; and adoption of global psychographic segmentation to identify special-interest consumers. In contrast, the actions proposed to move a brand towards the high-touch pole are: use of persuasive advertising; use of universal themes; focus on human emotion; emphasis on image; and the use of global psychographic segmentation to identify global village product and image appeals. The shift of a brand to both ends of "high-tech/high-touch" continuum involves the use of the approaches designed to move brands both to the "high-tech" end and to the "high-touch" end (Domzal and Unger, 1987).

Bhat and Reddy (1998) suggested that brand functionality and symbolism were concepts that, for consumers, were distinct. They provided scales which measured the level of symbolism and functionality of brands and concluded that symbolism may be associated with "prestige" or "personality expression". Bhat and Reddy (1998) concur with Domzal and Unger (1987) that a brand can simultaneously be perceived as both symbolic and functional, but disagree with them in considering symbolism and functionality as being two-poles of a single continuum. Bhat and Reddy (1998) contend that symbolism and functionality are distinct concepts which should be measured by different scales, since they are associated with different features.

In addition to discussion of the type of bases that should be considered in positioning, there is debate over the **number of differences that should be emphasized**, that is, the number of bases for positioning that should be used in a positioning strategy. Some authors suggest that only one association should be established (Reeves in Kotler, 1997; Ries and Trout in Kotler, 1997), but most authors believe that more than one base should be used in order to increase the size of the target markets (Wind, 1982; Aaker and Myers, 1987; Burnett, 1993; Kotler, 1997). There is no general rule on this issue, but most agree that a large number of bases should be avoided since this is likely to create a diffuse image in consumers' minds (Aaker and Shansby, 1982; Kotler, 1997). Kotler (1997) identifies specific errors that may occur in positioning as a result of using a large number of bases: consumers have only a vague idea of a brand, and do not have a special sense about it; they have only a narrow image of the brand and remain ignorant of many of its benefits; they have a confused image of the brand, as a result of establishing many associations with it or perceiving multiple changes in its positioning; they have difficulty in trusting associations linked with the brand.

No agreement exists either on the most appropriate type of base on which to position a product or on the number of bases that should be used in positioning. A variety of strategies have been considered useful for achieving the desired position including: the establishment of associations with a benefit; an attribute; the competition; a specific

application or use (usually defined in terms of usage occasion); a service user; a service class; and a cultural symbol. More recently, authors have suggested the increasing significance of goodwill and recognised the importance of functionality and symbolism. As far as the number of bases for positioning is concerned, there is a consensus that the use of a large number of bases should be avoided.

After having identified the main stages of a positioning strategy and several potential bases that may be used to achieve the position selected, it is useful to analyse how these approaches and suggestions have been applied in the field of tourism.

Lewis (1982) offered one of the earliest expositions on **positioning in tourism**. His context was hotels and he drew from material available in the mainline marketing positioning literature to suggest three steps:

(i) identification of benefits used by tourists to evaluate competing brands;
(ii) assessment of the importance which tourists' assigned to those benefits; and
(iii) evaluation of the performance of competing brands on the benefits identified.

Given that the identification of competitors is implicit in Lewis' approach, it appears that his steps are analogous to the first four steps delineated by Aaker and Myers (1987), with only their order being different. The only two steps in the Aaker and Myers' approach that were not considered by Lewis encompass the tasks that should follow a positioning analysis – the choice of the position desired and the "monitoration" of the position. Eight years later, Lewis (1990) addressed this issue again, but in the context of repositioning. He suggested that the repositioning process is very similar to that of positioning, with the difference being that the original position the product possesses in a tourist's mind has to be removed. He suggested that the repositioning strategy consisted of four steps:

(i) identification of the present position;
(ii) choice of a position to be occupied in the future;
(iii) launch of the repositioning campaign; and
(iv) evaluation of changes that occur in the product's position.

While the approach suggested by Lewis in 1982 focused on the assessment of the current position of products in relation to their competitors, in his later approach, Lewis (1990) emphasises the need to identify the desired position, the process required to achieve it (e.g. the promotional campaign) and the need to monitor the position in the future. Thus, the most recent positioning approach of Lewis (1990) already incorporates the fifth and sixth steps of the Aaker and Myers (1987) approach which corresponded to the selection of the position to achieve and the need to monitor future changes in the position.

The way Moutinho (1995) defined positioning in the field of tourism explicitly refers to the need to identify a desired position - "formulating a competitive position for the product" (p.325) – and to develop a strategy to attain it – the creation of a "detailed marketing mix" (p.325). Consequently, the definition of positioning proposed by Moutinho (1995) also refers to the fifth step of the Aaker and Myers (1987) approach.

An analysis of approaches proposed by Lewis (1982, 1990) and Moutinho (1995) and of the empirical research on the positioning of tourism destinations (e.g. Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Oppermann, 1996; Baloglu and Love, 2005; Enright and Newton, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005a; Kim and Agrusa, 2005)[1], suggest that the methodology proposed by Aaker and Myers (1987) for assessing positioning against competitors has been widely embraced in the tourism field and has been extensively adopted in empirical research on the positioning of destinations. Neither Lewis (1982, 1990) nor Moutinho (1995) expanded upon Aaker and Myers' (1987) approach. As far as the empirical studies are concerned, in a majority of them positioning was evaluated through an analysis of the market, as proposed by Aaker and Myers (1987). Other types of analyses of competitors and of resources of the destinations, that were identified by other early authors (Lovelock, 1984; Doyle and Saunders, 1985) as valuable components of the positioning analysis, were not embraced.
In tourism, the empirical research carried out to assess positioning against competitors relates to:

- the positioning of destinations (Hunt, 1975; Haahti, 1986; Calantone *et al*., 1989; Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Gartner, 1989; Woodside *et al.*, 1989; Crompton *et*

[1] These studies incorporate specific stages of the approach suggested by Aaker and Myers.

al., 1992; Javalgi *et al*, 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Oppermann, 1996; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Kim, 1998; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Dolnicar *et al.*, 2000; Uysal *et al.*, 2000; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Chen, 2001; Chen and Uysal, 2002; Orth and Turecková, 2002; Naoi, 2003; Pike and Ryan, 2004; Baloglu and Love, 2005; Enright and Newton, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005a; Kim and Agrusa, 2005);

- the positioning of tourism attractions (Fodness, 1990; d'Hautesserre, 2000);
- the positioning of facilities, such as hotels (Wilesky and Buttle, 1988; Saleh and Ryan, 1992; Dev *et al.*, 1995).

Given the scope of this thesis, the discussion on empirical research conducted on positioning will be focused on the positioning of destinations. Table 2.1. provides a review of empirical research conducted in the field of the positioning of tourism destinations.

The studies here reviewed are studies that met at least one of the following criteria:

- were published in publications of recognised scientific merit;
- were frequently cited in the literature;
- were accessible (some papers were published in the proceedings of conferences held in foreign countries so could not be consulted and, consequently, are not reviewed here).

The first landmark piece in the field of empirical research on positioning of destinations seems to be the work of Hunt (1975), which is widely referenced in the positioning literature. Although the aggregate amount of research on this topic is relatively small, the number of empirical studies carried out in the last decade demonstrates a growing awareness of the importance of evaluating the positioning of destinations against competitors.

Table 2.1. - Studies of the positioning of destinations reviewed in this thesis

Year	Author	Destinations compared
1975	Hunt	**Colorado**, **Montana**, **Utah** and **Wyoming**
1986	Haahti	**Finland** and competing destinations (**Britain**, **Ireland**, **Austria**, **Sweden**, **Denmark**, **The Netherlands**, **Germany**, **Switzerland**, **Norway**, **France** and **Spain**)
1989	Calantone *et al*	**Singapore** and competing destinations (**Thailand, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Bali, Hawaii, Philippines** and **Taiwan**)
1989	Embacher and Buttle	**Austria** and competing countries (**Switzerland, Spain, Canada, France, Italy, Germany**)
1989	Gartner	**Utah**, **Colorado**, **Wyoming** and **Montana**
1989	Woodside *et al*	**New Orleans** and competing cities (**New York, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Washington D.C., Chicago** and **Boston**)
1992	Crompton *et al*	**Lower Rio Grande Valley** and competing destinations (**Florida, California, Arizona** and **Hawaii**) (indicated by respondents as their ideal destination)
1992	Javalgi *et al*	**Central Europe**, **Southern Europe, Scandinavia**, **British Isles** (touring vacations) **Alps and Scandinavian Region** (outdoor vacations)
1993	Hu and Ritchie	**Hawaii**, **Australia**, **Greece**, **France**, **China**
1996	Oppermann	**30 North American convention destinations**
1997	Baloglu and Brinberg	**11 Mediterranean countries**: Portugal, Spain, France, Italy, Greece, Turkey, Israel, Egypt, Tunisia, Morocco, and Algeria.
1998	Kim	**5 well-known Korean national parks**
1999	Baloglu and McCleary	**Turkey**, **Egypt**, **Greece** and **Italy**
1999	Botha *et al*	**Sun/Lost City** (South Africa), **two main competitors** and the **ideal destination**
2000	Dolnicar *et al.*	**Vienna, Prague, Budapest**
2000	Uysal *et al*	**Virginia** and competing states (**Pennsylvania, Maryland, Georgia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Washington DC.** and **West Virginia**)
2001	Baloglu and Mangaloglu	4 **Mediterranean destinations** (**Turkey**, **Egypt**, **Greece** and **Italy**)
2001	Chen	**Asia/Pacific, North America, Europe**
2002	Chen and Uysal	**Virginia** and competing destinations (**District of Columbia** and **8 other eastern US states** - New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida)
2002	Orth and Turecková	**8 international destinations** (France, Spain, Austria, Croatia, Italy, Czech Republic, Germany, Hungary) and **8 Czech destinations** (Southern Bohemia, Czech Paradise, Southern Moravia, KrKonose Mountains, Karlovy Vary, Prague, Western Bohemia, Northern Bohemia)
2003	Naoi	**Destinations around Tokyo Prefecture**
2004	Pike and Ryan	**5 Leading domestic holiday areas in New Zealand's North Island** that are **within a half-day drive of Auckland**
2005	Baloglu and Love	**Las Vegas, Chicago, Dallas, Atlanta, Orlando**
2005	Enright and Newton	**Hong Kong, Singapore, Bangkok**
2005	Kim *et al.*	**Most popular overseas golf destinations for Koreans:** Australia, Hawaii, Philippines, Thailand, China, Malaysia and Japan
2005a	Kim *et al.*	**Most popular overseas destinations for Mainland Chinese:** France, United States, Australia, Japan, Egypt, Singapore, Italy, Germany, Canada, Spain
2005	Kim and Agrusa	**Most popular overseas honeymoon destinations for Koreans:** Guam, Thailand, Australia, Hawaii, Europe, Japan and China

The next section discuss the main methods proposed for operationalizing each stage of the process of positioning destinations.

2.4. METHODOLOGIES FOR OPERATIONALIZING THE STAGES ASSOCIATED WITH MEASURING THE POSITIONING OF A TOURISM DESTINATION

2.4.1. Identification of competing tourism destinations

The first step suggested by Aaker and Myers (1987) in order to evaluate positioning is the **identification of competitors**. The analysis of the empirical studies on positioning identified in the last section led to conclusion that, in the majority of studies conducted on the positioning of destinations, the destinations being compared were countries (Haahti, 1986; Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Orth and Turecková, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005a) or North American states (Hunt, 1975; Gartner, 1989; Uysal *et al.*, 2000; Chen and Uysal, 2002). A few researchers analysed the positioning of other kinds of destinations such as regions encompassing several countries (Javalgi *et al*, 1992; Chen, 2001), towns (Woodside *et al.*, 1989; Oppermann, 1996; Dolnicar *et al.*, 2000), national parks (Kim, 1998) and other specific regions of a country or state (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002). Although a few authors developed studies based on the opinions of intermediaries such as meeting planners (Oppermann, 1996), tour operators and travel agents (Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001), most studies were based on the opinions of potential visitors to destinations.

The most frequent operationalization is that competitors are identified by researchers. Although this approach has the advantage of all respondents comparing the same group of places, it may force them to evaluate destinations that they never considered visiting. Some authors (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Botha *et al.*, 1999) opened a new research route in this area by enabling respondents to elicit the competing destinations. Respondents were asked to

indicate destinations that they had recently visited, that they considered visiting, or that they would like to visit if they had the resources needed. In this case, the destinations were classified into different groups (according to which they were considered, for example, as ideal destinations, or as close competitors to the main destination being considered), and then destinations of different groups were compared. Although this approach makes it more difficult to evaluate the position of a destination against a specific site, it provides a more realistic perspective of respondents' destination selection behaviour.

2.4.2. Identification of potential bases for positioning tourism destinations

In the empirical research undertaken in tourism, the approach most frequently used to **identify the features used for evaluating competing destinations** has been the literature review (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Oppermann, 1996; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Kim, 1998; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Orth and Turecková, 2002; Naoi, 2003). Typically, features most frequently cited in the literature were adopted by these researchers in their empirical studies. The literature review seems to perform an important role in identifying potential determinants of positioning which have demonstrated their relevance in other contexts. Only a few authors have used more elaborate techniques such as asking respondents to elicit constructs through the use of repertory grids (Embacher and Buttle, 1989) or in-depth discussions with tourism specialists (Kim, 1998; Pike and Ryan, 2004), including tour guides (Kim and Agrusa, 2005) and travel agencies (Kim and Agrusa, 2005; Kim *et al*., 2005).

Positioning of destinations against competitors has usually been measured based on a bundle of items reflecting tourism attractions and the facilities that support tourism (Haahti, 1986; Calantone *et al*., 1989; Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Oppermann, 1996; Kim, 1998; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002). The ability of destinations to satisfy the motivations of visitors has been used by some authors (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Chen and Uysal, 2002; Orth and Turecková,

2002), frequently in conjunction with attribute elements, to compare the positions of destinations. Only a small number of researchers (e.g. Botha *et al.*, 1999) explicitly took into consideration other kinds of determinants of positioning, for example the structural constraints associated with visiting specific places. A more detailed discussion of the three determinants of destinations' positioning herein described – destinations' attractions and facilities, motivations and structural constraints - is given in chapter 4.

In the majority of these studies, the positioning of destinations was assessed taking into account their cognitive image which is the "sum of beliefs and attitudes of an object leading to some internally accepted picture of its attributes" (Gartner, 1993, p.193). However, there seems to be a growing trend towards assessing the affective component of image, that is, the dimension of the image that is "related to the motives one has for destination selection" (Gartner, 1993, p.196). This component is explicitly measured in the positioning studies of authors such as Baloglu and Bringberg (1997), Pike and Ryan (2004) and Baloglu and Love (2005). Baloglu and Brinberg (1997) analysed the positioning of 11 Mediterranean countries based on affective dimensions of image and showed that this component of image may be useful for identifying the position of destinations.

2.4.3. Assessment of the positions of destinations on selected bases for positioning

After identifying key features used in evaluating competing destinations, the two subsequent stages of a positioning strategy are: **assessment of the performance of competing destinations on those features** and an **evaluation of the importance those features have to tourists**. The debates on these stages focus on the guidelines used to select effective positions for tourism destinations, and the best strategies for achieving those positions. These issues were addressed earlier in the chapter in the discussion of the rationale for positioning research in tourism, so the focus here is on the statistical tools that may be used in these two stages.

Ries and Trout (1986) were the first authors to suggest development of a positioning strategy in the field of tourism – namely the positioning of Belgium and Jamaica. In the case of Jamaica, they suggested that this destination should be positioned as a Caribbean destination which was similar to Hawaii, given that the attributes of Jamaica were comparable to those which people already associated with Hawaii. They stated that in developing a positioning strategy, destination images that people hold should be considered, but they did not use empirical research to support the positioning strategies they proposed. The use of positioning analysis based on perceptions of potential tourists only became more widely used towards the end of the 1980s (Haahti, 1986; Calantone *et al*., 1989; Embacher and Buttle, 1989; Gartner, 1989; Woodside *et al.*, 1989).

A major problem in analysing the positioning of destinations is the high number of attributes usually needed to assess a destination's position against that of its competitors. Consequently, some researchers attempted to reduce the large number of destination items into a smaller set of dimensions to facilitate comparison. Analysing these empirical studies, the techniques most widely employed to create these major dimensions were factor analysis (Wilensky and Buttle, 1988; Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Javalgi *et al*., 1992; Oppermann, 1996; Kim, 1998; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002; Pike and Ryan, 2004; Baloglu and Love, 2005) and multidimensional scaling (Gartner, 1989; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Kim, 1998; Kim and Agrusa, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005a). Among studies where the number of features used to compare competing destinations was reduced to a small set of domains, only a few adopted other techniques - Embacher and Buttle (1989) who used content analysis; Calantone *et al.* (1989) and Chen and Uysal (2002) who used correspondence analysis; Dolnicar *et al.* (2000) who adopted a system of prototypes.

To compare the position of competitors, some authors have used descriptive techniques such as frequency analyses (Hunt, 1975; Uysal *et al.*, 2000) and direct comparison among mean performance ratings assigned to the competitors on each attribute (Hunt, 1975; Woodside *et al*., 1989). However, one of the most frequently approaches adopted to compare competing tourism destinations was to test whether there were significant differences among destinations either with paired-samples t tests (Crompton *et al.*, 1992;

Botha *et al.*, 1999; Naoi, 2003), or with Anova and/or Manova (Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Orth and Turecková, 2002). Other procedures frequently used were correspondence analysis (Calantone *et al*., 1989; Chen and Uysal, 2002) and multidimensional scaling (Haahti, 1986; Gartner, 1989; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Kim, 1998; Kim and Agrusa, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005a). However, a wide variety of techniques has been adopted in this context, including chi-square tests (Woodside *et al.*, 1989), repertory grids (Embacher and Buttle, 1989), or more complex techniques like discriminant analysis (Javalgi *et al.*, 1992), logit analysis (Chen and Uysal, 2002) and networks of prototypes (Dolnicar *et al.*, 2000).

A few researchers (Kim and Agrusa, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005) asked respondents to directly indicate perceptions of similarity and dissimilarity among destinations. Some authors (Haahti, 1986) created indexes of dissimilarity between destinations, largely based on the difference between performance ratings of destinations. Others compared brands using indexes that incorporated both importance and performance (Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Oppermann, 1996). Smith (1995), who provides a good analysis of tools that may be used in tourism research, advocates the use of these indexes to measure the attractiveness of destinations in relation to their competitors.

In some empirical tourism studies respondents were required to rate the importance of the several features considered in each study (Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Oppermann, 1996; Pike and Ryan, 2004; Baloglu and Love, 2005). However, in a majority of the studies (Hunt, 1975; Haahti, 1986; Gartner, 1989; Calantone *et al.*, 1989; Javalgi *et al.*, 1992; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002; Naoi, 2003) there was not a direct evaluation of the importance of each of the several features. Sometimes it was assumed that the most important features were those in which the destination that performed better had higher evaluations in terms of performance (Uysal *et al.*, 2000), or those in which a destination was shown to be very different from competitors (Gartner, 1989; Calantone *et al.*, 1989; Javalgi *et al.*, 1992). In a majority of the studies reviewed, the importance respondents assign to the attributes was largely ignored.

In a few studies there was an attempt to assess both the performance and importance using only a single question. This was done by Enright and Newton (2005) where respondents were asked how important each attribute was in determining the competitiveness of the destination. A similar procedure was reported by Botha *et al.* (1999) where, for each structural constraint, respondents were asked to indicate how important each constraint was in their decision to visit Sun/Lost City rather then competing destinations. The adoption of this approach reflects the high effort required, of respondents to evaluate the importance of several attributes and, additionally, to assess the performance of several destinations on the same attributes. This combined approach is preferable to ignoring the importance of the attributes, as happened in a majority of the studies reviewed.

The use of graphical output to illustrate the outcomes of positioning analyses has been extensively employed in positioning research in the field of tourism. When descriptive analyses have been used (e.g. frequencies or direct comparisons of mean attribute ratings), graphics such as importance-performance grids have sometimes been used (Oppermann, 1996; Pike and Ryan, 2004). Perceptual maps also have been widely advocated for graphically displaying destinations' positions, and they have been extensively used in empirical studies (Haahti, 1986; Calantone *et al*., 1989; Baloglu and Brinberg, 1997; Kim, 1998; Uysal *et al.*, 2000; Chen, 2001; Chen and Uysal, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2005; Kim *et al.*, 2005a; Kim and Agrusa, 2005).

Several authors advocate the need for determining a position in different target markets (Lewis, 1981; Woodside, 1982; Moutinho, 1995; Mazanec, 1995; Dev *et al.*, 1995). This may be important given that, for example, some characteristics of visitors or situational characteristics may influence destinations' positioning. However, a majority of the destination positioning studies only consider variables related to the bases of positioning previously identified – attributes of the destination, motivations and structural constraints. Few studies have considered other variables that may influence a destination's position such as:

- familiarity with the destination (Hunt, 1975; Calantone *et al*., 1989; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002);

- information search (Botha *et al.*, 1999);
- type of vacation (Javalgi *et al*., 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993);
- season of the year (Kim, 1998).

2.4.4. Contributions and limitations of empirical research conducted on the positioning of tourism destinations

The purpose of this section is to identify contributions and limitations of the empirical research conducted in the field of positioning of destinations.

As the literature evolved more emphasis was given to identifying the strengths of destinations that most differentiated them from competitors and which, therefore, should be emphasised in their promotion (Woodside, 1982; Woodside *et al.*, 1989; Gartner, 1989; Calantone *et al.*, 1989; Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Javalgi *et al.*, 1992; Botha *et al.*, 1999). Examples of positions emerging from these studies include: New Orleans should be promoted as "an exciting city with much nightlife, celebration and fun" (Woodside *et al*, 1989, p.30); Utah is seen as an uncrowded place to visit with opportunities for passive forms of recreation, compared to Colorado, Montana and Wyoming (Gartner, 1989); Sun/Lost City (in South Africa) should be positioned as an up-market resort complex, safe, relatively low cost, with close juxtaposition of multiple attractions, a free internal transport system, multiple opportunities to share experiences within the travel group, and a place where tourists can get away from the hustle and bustle of the city (Botha *et al*, 1999). Another study concluded that the Lower Rio Grande Valley, in Texas, should be positioned as a place where there is a good quality of life (as a result of its relatively strong attributes scores on plentiful recreation opportunities, adequate medical facilities and no traffic congestion) with good opportunities for socially interacting with others (Crompton *et al*., 1992). The studies reviewed in this paragraph lead to the conclusion that positioning analyses have been used **to identify the most important strengths and weaknesses of tourism destinations**, compared to their competitors.

Challenges in securing a distinctive position have been reported in some studies. For example, the strengths of Virginia (natural and historical landscape) were shared by other competing destinations (Uysal *et al.*, 2000); Austria was perceived as being similar to Switzerland (Embacher and Buttle, 1989); and Budapest and Prague were perceived as being relatively similar (Dolnicar *et al.*, 2000).

Some researchers go beyond identifying features that should be used in positioning a destination, to also **suggest promotional strategies** based on those features. Crompton *et al.* (1992) suggested the use of testimonials in promotional material (e.g. Winter Texans with whom prospects could identify) in positioning the Lower Rio Grande Valley because of the potential difficulty tourists may have in assessing the relatively intangible attributes that they recommend be used in its positioning ("quality of life" and "social interaction").

Javalgi *et al*. (1992) and Calantone *et al.* (1989) compare the way destinations should be positioned (the features that should be emphasised in promotion) with the way they have been promoted. Calantone *et al.* (1989) concluded that the perceptions respondents have of Hong Kong and Hawaii are consistent with the promotional programs adopted to promote these destinations. Javalgi *et al*. (1992) found that some destinations analysed in their study were being promoted using the most appropriate attributes to position effectively in the touring vacation market (e.g. Scandinavia) or in the outdoor vacations' market (e.g. Alps and Scandinavia). In contrast, Javalgi *et al*. (1992) suggested changes that should be introduced in the promotion strategies of their destinations (British Isles, Central Europe and Southern Europe), so they could be more successfully positioned in the touring vacations' market. For example, it was suggested that promotion of the British Isles to this target market should include information that this destination is a "region having many points of interest within a short distance" (Javalgi *et al*., 1992; p.60). The literature in this paragraph shows that some positioning studies have **assessed the effectiveness of strategies used to promote a destination**.

Even though most references to the utility of positioning are related to promotion, empirical research has highlighted its potential contributions in other areas. For example,

the contributions of positioning to tourism development are prominent in Oppermann's (1996) study, which addressed the strengths and weaknesses of 30 North American conference destinations using a sample of association meeting planners. Among other conclusions, identification of the major weaknesses of Quebec City (e.g. scoring low on "ease of air transportation access" and "hotel room availability") provided insights for future tourism development of this city. This study demonstrates that positioning analyses have also been used for **guiding tourism development or tourism facilities' operations**. Although this strength of the positioning analyses has been explicitly noted only in a few positioning studies of tourism destinations, it has been implicit in most of them.

This section concludes with a summary of the major contributions and limitations of the reviewed studies to enhancing **understanding of the destination positioning process**.

The **determinants of positioning** - variables which may have an impact on a destination's position - most often considered in these studies were:

- attributes of a destination; and
- the motivations of tourists.

Hence, in most of these studies, the positioning of destinations in relation to their competitors, was measured based on destinations' performances on selected attributes and on the ability of destinations to satisfy motivations.

Constraints as a basis for positioning have been explicitly considered in only a few studies (e.g. Um and Crompton, 1992; Botha *et al.*, 1999). Similarly, only few positioning studies have included other kinds of variables such as:

- familiarity with the destination (Hunt, 1975; Calantone *et al*., 1989; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002);
- information search (Botha *et al.*, 1999);
- type of vacation (Javalgi *et al*., 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993);
- season of the year (Kim, 1998).

The impact of information acquisition has been evaluated only by Botha *et al.* (1999) and they considered only the search effort invested in acquiring information about destinations. The direction of search was not addressed in their study.

Javalgi *et al* (1992) considered trip purpose to be a variable which influenced the perceived relative attractiveness of destinations, but importance of the destinations' attributes according to purpose of the visit could not be compared because the set of attributes associated with each purpose was different. Kim (1998) provided useful insight into the potential impact of the season in a destination's attractiveness.

Hu and Ritchie (1993) attempted to evaluate the influence of experience with a destination. However, their effort was limited to evaluating performance of destinations on attributes according to whether or not tourists had previously visited the destination, and did not consider the influence of other indicators of familiarity (such as the geographical distance people live from the destination). Neither did they analyse the influence of familiarity on future search efforts for acquiring information about the destination.

Hu and Ritchie (1993) were among the few authors who made a useful contribution to assessing the influence of motivations as situational variables. Significant differences were found in the ability to satisfy the two motivations considered which were:

- a recreational vacation experience
- an educational vacation experience.

Their study suggests the existence of a relationship between motivations and the importance of criteria considered in evaluations of alternate destinations. The study illustrated that identifying type of tourists' motivations may be useful in determining the type of criteria tourists are likely to use in evaluating alternate destinations. A limitation of Hu and Ritchie's (1993) study was its failure to consider changes in the impact of motivations during different stages of the decision process, and the consideration of only two motivations.

All the destination positioning studies reviewed focused on evaluating the **influence of variables that may act as determinants of positioning**. Although it is recognized that these variables may influence decisions about whether or not tourists consider visiting a destination and whether or not they select a destination as a place to visit from among a set of alternate destinations, the process of the evolution of choice sets was considered in only two of the studies analysed (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Botha *et al*, 1999). As a result, changes in the influence of positioning determinants across the evaluation stages of choice sets were assessed only in those studies.

The analysis of the material reviewed in sections 2.4.1. to 2.4.3. suggests that the **major limitations of the empirical positioning research undertaken in the field of tourism destinations** to this point are:

(i) The narrow range of bases for positioning (features on which the performance of destinations was evaluated) that have been considered. For the most part, these are confined to the destinations' attributes and the destinations' abilities to satisfy motivations.

(ii) Disregard for the potential role of constraints in positioning, given that only two studies (Um and Crompton, 1992; Botha *et al.*, 1999) have explicitly considered constraints as bases for positioning.

(iii) Lack of concern with the potential impact of information acquisition in positioning. This effect was assessed in only one study (Botha *et al.*, 1999) in which it was confined to the effort spent searching for information about each destination, and did not consider the direction of search.

(iv) The limited effort to identify situational variables that may act as moderators of the impact of determinants of positioning. Only a small number of studies (Hunt, 1975; Calantone *et al.*, 1989; Javalgi *et al.*, 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Kim, 1998; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Orth and Turecková, 2002) measured their impact and, among these, only a narrow range of situational variables were considered – type of vacation, familiarity with the destination, and season of the year.

(v) No consideration of all the potential effects of experience with a destination on destination positioning. Although Hu and Ritchie (1993) assessed the influence of experience with destinations on the way tourists evaluated the destinations' performances, they did not consider its influence on information acquisition.

(vi) Lack of concern with the possible influence of geographical distance between the residence of a tourist and the destination being considered for visitation.

(vii) Disregard for the process of the evolution of choice sets and, consequently, lack of consideration of changes in a destination's position in the evolution of choice sets (only a few researchers used approaches that enabled the respondents to elicit consideration sets).

(viii) Lack of concern with variations in the variables that influence destination positioning across the stages of choice sets' evolution.

2.5. CONCLUSION

The concept of positioning has been widely embraced in the tourism field. Although the concept has evolved in the 30 years since it was first mooted, there is broad consensus on the central characteristics of the concept:

(i) enable a position to be attained in tourists' minds which is different from that occupied by competitors;

(ii) the position achieved should present value to tourists; and

(iii) the position may be reached through the use of all the marketing mix variables.

The identification of these characteristics suggested the following definition of positioning which was used to guide this thesis: positioning is the process of identifying a position in potential tourists' minds which is both different from the positions of competitor destinations and valuable to tourists, and requires the integrated use of all the elements of the marketing mix to achieve the desired position.

The most remarkable modifications in the concept of positioning have been the broadening of its scope and the specification of the characteristics of what constitutes a successful position. Initially, positioning was confined to promotion but this gave place to a recognition that it should guide decisions related to all the marketing mix variables. The literature revealed that a successful position should have the following characteristics: differentiate from competitors evidencing the superiority of the destination in relation to competitors; provide value to visitors; not being easy to copy; being affordable (in financial terms); being profitable and being communicable.

Different approaches to developing positioning strategies have been proposed. However, that suggested by Aaker and Myers (1987), which was originally developed by Aaker and Shansby (1982), is the most comprehensive and most accepted in the tourism field. The basis of this strategy is the assessment of the positioning of all competitors, that is, a positioning analysis. This is followed by selection of the position that is going to be occupied and a process for monitoring that position. This framework has been used in this thesis. The focus of this thesis is on the assessment of the positioning of competing destinations.

Positioning analysis involves:

- identifying competitors;
- identifying the features – e.g. attributes – that tourists use to evaluate a destination;
- assessing the performance of the several competing destinations' from tourists' perspectives, that is, to identify how competing destinations are positioned in relation to each other;
- assessing the importance visitors attach to the selected features (e.g. attributes) used to evaluate competing destinations.

Most empirical research on destinations positioning has focused on the positioning of countries and North American states. In most studies competing destinations were identified by researchers, not by respondents, and the features (attributes) used to evaluate

the destinations were identified through a literature review. Only a few researchers used other approaches (e.g. repertory grids or in-depth discussions). Several authors postulated that there is a wide range of potential bases that could be used for positioning, that is, a successful position can be achieved by creating many different kinds of associations with destinations using: attributes; benefits; potential uses and applications; potential users; product classes; competitors; cultural symbols; or a combination of some of the previous features. However, most empirical research has been limited to the attractions and facilities of the destination, and to the ability of destinations to satisfy motivations. Although there are some successful examples of positioning studies based on the assessment of affective images or holistic images of destinations, the most frequent approach in this kind of study was the assessment of cognitive images of competing destinations.

Given the frequent use of a large number of items to evaluate destinations, the adoption of statistical procedures to reduce the information provided by these items into a limited number of dimensions (e.g. factor analysis, multidimensional scaling) was commonly reported in the literature. A large variety of techniques have been used to assess the position of competitors in relation to each other and, sometimes, to identify significant differences among competitors. The most frequently used analyses were paired-samples t tests, Anova and/or Manova, multidimensional scaling and correspondence analysis. Although it is advocated that the importance visitors assign to the features used to assess destinations should be measured, few researchers adopted the approach of enabling respondents to directly assess the importance of each feature used to evaluate the destinations. Some researchers opted for alternative procedures to infer the importance of the attributes, such as asking consumers to rank destinations according to their preference or trying to assess the importance and performance concerning one attribute with the same question that tried to incorporate both importance and performance dimensions. Although these latter approaches have limitations it is probably more useful to use them than to ignore the importance of the attributes used to assess destinations, as happened in a majority of the studies reviewed.

The empirical positioning studies carried out in the field of tourism destinations had widespread implications enabling managers:

(i) to identify features visitors use to compare and differentiate competing destinations;

(ii) to detect features to which visitors assign more importance when assessing destinations;

(iii) to discover the main strengths and weaknesses of tourism destinations;

(iv) to help developing promotional strategies for tourism destinations;

(v) to evaluate promotional strategies which have been adopted;

(vi) to help design strategies for development of destinations and for determining the changes that should be introduced in tourism destinations;

(vii) to help design strategies to change the position a destination holds in the mind of potential visitors.

The review suggested that destination positioning studies have limitations that should be considered as potential areas of research:

- They considered only a limited range of determinants of positioning (variables that may influence the positioning of a destination), with the majority of studies only considering attractions and facilities' attributes; many other determinants of positioning such as structural constraints and information search have been largely ignored;
- Some dimensions of some potential determinants of positioning have also been ignored - e.g. familiarity of the destinations has been measured in these studies by only assessing the number of previous visits to the destination and not by the geographical distance people live from the destination;
- Relationships between potential determinants of positioning also have been largely overlooked;
- Finally, most studies, did not explicitly address the process of destination choice since, in a majority of cases, the destinations selected to be studied were chosen by researchers and not by respondents. The process of evolution of choice sets has been largely disregarded with no attention being given to the way the

position of the destination and the influence of the determinants of the positioning change across this process.

In the next chapter some of the most prominent destination choice models which have been proposed will be analysed in order to ascertain the extent to which determinants of positioning have been considered in previous conceptualisations and in empirical studies.

CHAPTER 3 – THE IMPORTANCE OF POSITIONING IN DESTINATION SELECTION MODELS – A REVIEW OF PREVIOUS MODELS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the empirical research was reviewed to identify determinants of destinations' positioning. The review revealed some limitations that could usefully be addressed by future research.

The aim of this chapter is to review some of the most prominent destination selection models and how the positioning of destinations is addressed in these models. One of the study objectives (chapter 1, page 3, objective 1) is to analyse the importance assigned to positioning in these models and to develop a model which explicitly explains the role of positioning destinations on the destination selection process. Another objective (chapter 1, page 3, objective 5) is to analyse the influence of selected factors on the positioning of destinations during the process of selecting a destination to visit. The purpose is also to understand the type of influence that each of these factors have in the positioning of destinations. Limitations of the models are identified and these offered guidance for the research reported in this thesis.

3.2. REVIEW OF PROMINENT DESTINATION SELECTION MODELS IN THE TOURISM LITERATURE

3.2.1. The model of Moutinho

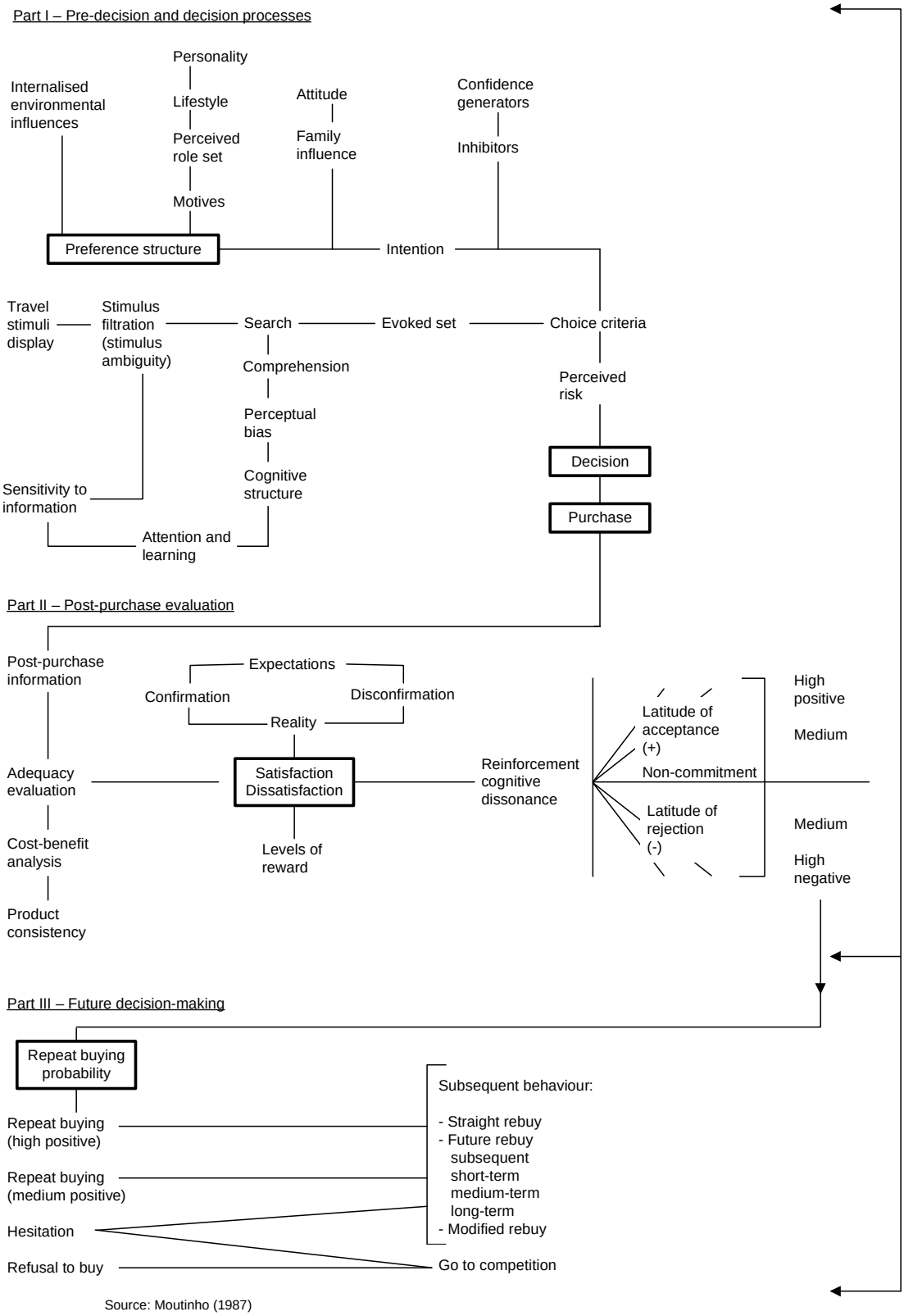
Moutinho (1987) proposed a vacation tourist behaviour model that extends beyond destination selection, to also include consequences of this decision (figure 3.1.). It was

originally developed by Moutinho as part of his doctoral thesis in 1982. Many of the ideas and relationships within it were adapted from Howard and Sheth's (1969) seminal model of buyer behaviour. Moutinho's model is complex as a consequence of the comprehensive approach used to explain the destination's selection process. As a result it is perhaps overly detailed. Although this complexity prevents from operationalizing the model, as the first attempt published in the tourism literature to portray the decision process, it was a landmark contribution.

The model's starting point is the existence of a preference structure which develops from the interaction and influence of a multitude of social-psychological factors. The structure of preferences is moulded by environmental influences (e.g. cultural norms and values, family and reference groups) and social-psychological determinants of preference (e.g. personality, lifestyles, motives). Moutinho appears to regard preference structure as being synonymous with a predisposition to travel. Once this predisposition has been established, then individuals are likely to be responsive to travel stimuli that are displayed through the media or acquired from personal sources. To complement this information, tourists may engage in an active search for information. The extent of information acquisition is likely to depend on the information tourists already have about the destination and on their level of uncertainty about it. Because tourists are not able to process all the available information about destinations, they are likely to filter it. Thus, the information acquired depends on the attention level of tourists and on their learning process. As a result of information acquisition, tourists become aware of a group of destinations which, borrowing the term and definition from Howard and Sheth (1969), Moutinho terms the evoked set. These destinations are selected according to choice criteria which usually correspond to the destinations' attributes that tourists consider to be most important. The model appears to show that inhibitors play a role between intentions and choice criteria. However, this feature is not explicitly discussed (Moutinho, 1987).

Destination selection decisions are strongly influenced by a series of factors that include information provided by tourism organizations or transmitted by other persons, previous experience, and image of potential destinations. The decision process has to weigh the trade-offs among destinations before a single destination is selected.

Figure 3.1. – Moutinho's vacation tourist behavior model



Source: Moutinho (1987)

The second stage consists of a post-purchase evaluation. The extent to which tourists are satisfied or unsatisfied is considered to be important because it is likely to affect their choice of destinations in the future. Once tourists have evaluated the choice they made, the third stage of the model assesses the probability that tourists will select the same destination again in a future decision process.

This model is comprehensive in that it includes stages of the buying process that take place after the purchase, but which have a potential effect in subsequent purchases. Another important feature appears to be recognition of the role of motivations and inhibitors in developing the preference structure. Choice sets are included but only the evoked set is explicitly identified. It is stated that choice criteria are relevant in selecting the destination to visit from the evoked set. However, the selection process that takes place between those stages is not well specified. It does not identify factors which differentiate destinations selected to subsequent sets and those not selected.

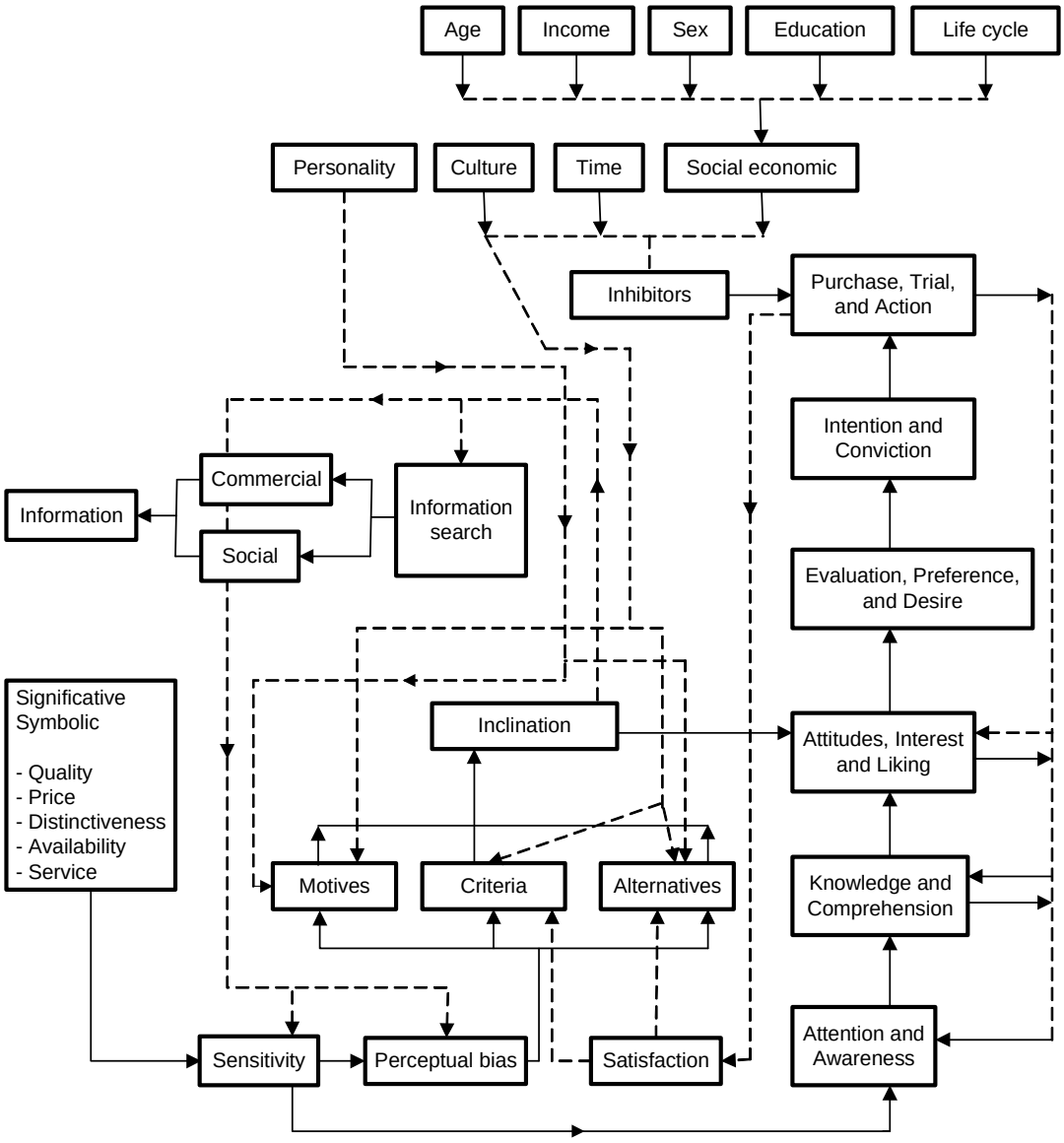
3.2.2. The model of Mill and Morrison

Another model of the tourists' buying process was proposed by **Mill and Morrison** (1998) (figure 3.2.). It was originally developed by Mill and Morrison in 1985. In its original form, the model had five stages. The 1998 version had only minor modifications but an additional stage was added. Like Moutinho's model, it borrows substantially from the Howard and Sheth (1969) model and is more complex than other models of destinations' selection that were subsequently proposed. The six stages of the structure follow the conventional purchase decision process which is used in most marketing texts: attention/awareness, knowledge/comprehension, attitudes/interest/liking, evaluation/preference/desire, intention/conviction, and purchase/trial/action.

To initiate the process, tourists have to be aware of a whole set of destinations and give some attention to them. Passive information acquisition seems to be of primary importance at this stage. In the following stage there is likely to be an active search of information as a consequence of tourists' desires to know more about these destinations. According to the

model, tourists develop perceptions about destinations based on the benefits they perceive destinations can offer them. At the end of the second stage, they seek to be more knowledgeable about at least some of the initial group of destinations.

Figure 3.2. – Mill and Morrison's model of tourism consumer behaviour



Source: Mill and Morrison (1998)

At the third stage, tourists are likely to develop an attitude towards each destination they are considering according to their perceptions of the destinations' abilities to satisfy their motivations. In stage four, they evaluate the destinations and, as a consequence, develop

preferences for them. The authors suggest that motivations may influence how much effort is invested into acquiring information about the place.

In the final stage, tourists become convinced that a particular destination will satisfy their motivations, and the only barrier to purchase is strength of constraints. The constraints specified in the model are: time, culture, and social economic variables. After the destination has been visited, tourists have to make another decision, as to whether they would or would not visit this destination again. Satisfaction associated with the experience is likely to have a major impact in the choice of destinations that will be considered for future vacations and in the modification of evaluation criteria.

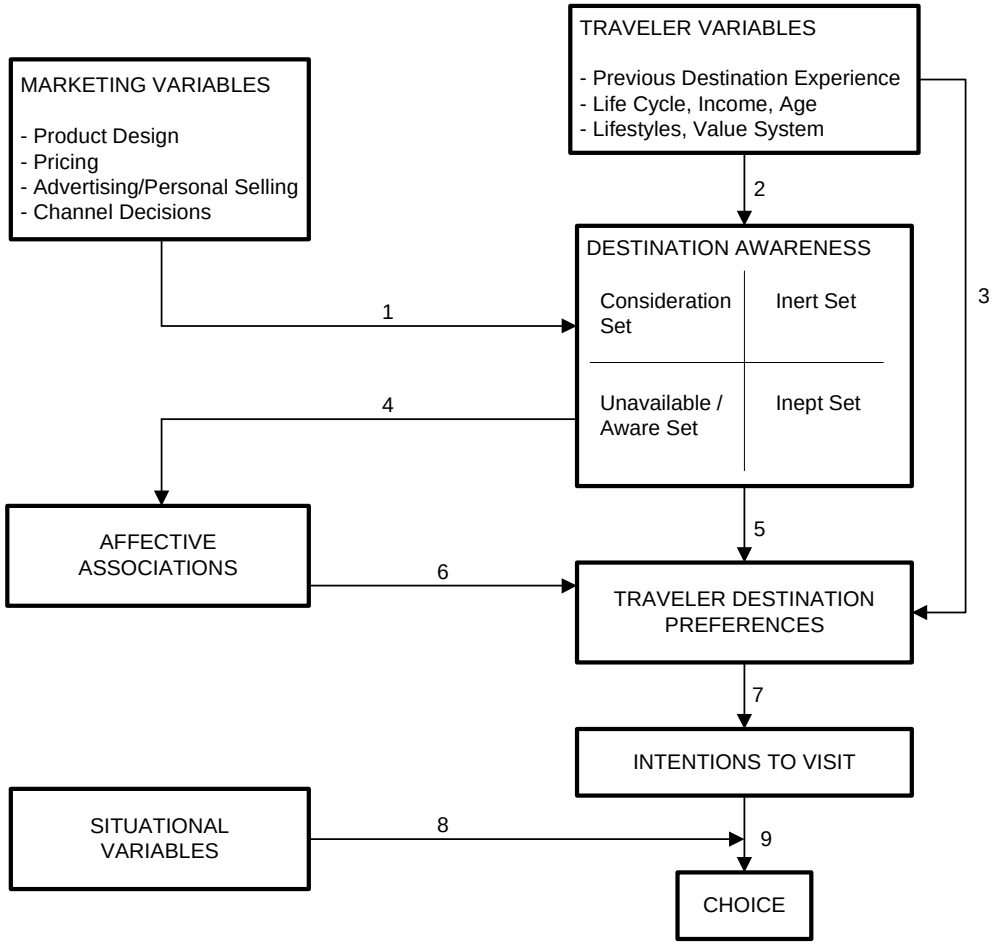
Although the model posits an extensive number of relationships among visitor behaviour variables, some of them are not referenced in this discussion because Mill and Morrison (1998) do not offer a clear exposition of the nature of these relationships. This limitation extends to the suggested relationship in the model between motivations and inhibitors. They do suggest the potential impact of inhibitors in selecting among destinations, but it is unclear whether inhibitors influence motivations at the outset or whether they act as potential barriers to the selection of a destination when an intention to visit it has emerged. This model of visitor behaviour is similar in structure to that offered by Moutinho and both rely heavily on Howard and Sheth's model (1969).

3.2.3. The model of Woodside and Lysonski

The destination selection model proposed by **Woodside and Lysonski** (1989) (figure 3.3.) was the first model in the tourism literature, which was not an adaptation of Howard and Sheth (1969). It has the important virtue of being substantially simpler than the earlier adaptations. It states that marketing variables (the traditional marketing mix) and tourists' variables (previous destination experience, life cycle, income, age, lifestyles, value system) interact to determine the group of destinations of which each tourist is aware at a particular moment in time. The places of which people are aware correspond to those they are able to

recall from memory without prompting. The model categorizes destinations of which tourists are aware into four sets: consideration set, inert set, unavailable-aware set and inept set. The consideration set comprises all destinations tourists consider visiting. The inert set is formed by those places tourists evaluate neither positively nor negatively, because they do not have enough information to assess them. The unavailable-aware set includes the destinations that tourists perceive to be difficult to visit. Finally, the inept set comprises places tourists are not interested in visiting.

Figure 3.3. – Woodside and Lysonski's general model of traveller leisure destination awareness and choice



Source: Woodside and Lysonski (1989)

The model assumes that tourists are likely to establish affective associations with destinations, that is, develop positive or negative feelings towards the places of which they

are aware. The variables that affect the process of division of the awareness set into four choice sets are not specified in the model, and differences between destinations classified into the four categories are not identified. However, the narrative suggests that the kind of affect associated with a destination is likely to influence its assignment to a specific group, even though the arrows in the model do not show this. Hence, destinations in a consideration set are probably linked to more positive feelings than destinations assigned to other groups while, in contrast, destinations in an inept set are probably associated with more negative feelings than those in the other categories.

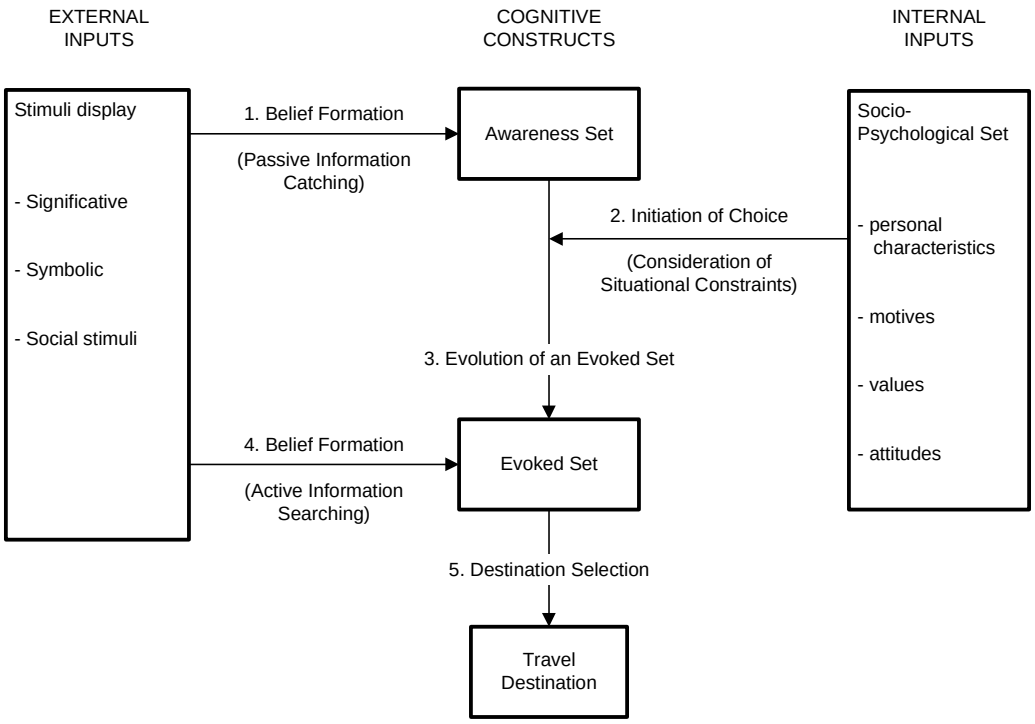
Destinations are likely to have a position, when affective associations are linked with them. Thus, positioning is likely to influence the classification of destinations into particular choice sets. Preferences for destinations are formed based on destination awareness and affective association and, consequently, according to the attitude strength assigned to each destination. Differences in strength of intention to visit each destination are likely to emerge, reflecting the differential probability that tourists perceive they have of visiting it. Situational variables probably affect tourists' decisions at this stage. Therefore, the selection of the destination that tourists want to visit is not only dependent on intention to visit, but also on the influence of situational variables.

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) offer valuable insights into the destination selection process, by introducing a model that explicitly incorporates the evolution of choice sets and implicitly recognizes the role of positioning. However, there is no attempt to identify the variables that influence the allocation of destinations to subsequent choice sets. The only inference that can be made from the model is that destinations that are included in subsequent sets are likely to differ from those that are not included in relation to the degree tourists are aware of them and in relation to the kind of feelings (positive or negative) which tourists associate with them. Even here though, the authors do not specify the kind of elements that differentiate positive and negative feelings. The identification of elements explaining choice sets' evolution was subsequently addressed by Um and Crompton (1990).

3.2.4. The model of Um and Crompton

The model of travel destination choice proposed by **Um and Crompton** (1990) incorporates a decision process based on the development of destination choice sets (figure 3.4.). This model goes one step further than the model suggested by Woodside and Lysonski (1989) in that it identifies variables which affect development of the alternate choice sets. The central elements of the model are two destination sets: the awareness set and the evoked set. Tourists begin to develop in their minds a destinations' awareness set that includes all destinations they may consider as potential destinations before any decision process about their trip has been initiated. However, when tourists make a decision to travel, they form an evoked set which is comprised of all destinations they consider to be reasonable alternatives in selecting a specific destination. Hence, two main stages are identified in this model: the selection of destinations from the awareness set to the evoked set and the selection of a final destination from the evoked set.

Figure 3.4. – Um and Crompton's model of the pleasure travel destination choice process



Source: Um and Crompton (1990)

Beliefs about destinations' attributes are likely to be developed by exposure to external stimuli which can be classified into three categories: significative stimuli, symbolic stimuli and social stimuli. Significative stimuli are those that result from having had direct contact with a destination. Symbolic stimuli are the messages and pictures disseminated by tourist agencies, news media and other sources with which tourists do not personally interact. Social stimuli emerge from face-to-face interaction with other people. The model suggests that, while beliefs about destinations in the awareness set emerge from passive acquisition of information, beliefs about destinations in the evoked set are further developed by an active search for information.

The nature of beliefs about destinations' attributes is likely to vary according to a tourist's sociopsychological characteristics (e.g. lifestyle, personality, situational factors), motives, values and attitudes. The model recognizes that beliefs about the destinations' attributes that are created in the awareness set may change at the level of the evoked set as additional information is acquired.

Attitudes towards destinations' attributes are classified as perceived inhibitors (if they reflect strong situational constraints) or as perceived facilitators (if they strongly satisfy specific motives). Hence, attitude towards a destination is operationalized in this model as the difference between perceived facilitators and perceived inhibitors. It is likely that, at both stages, destination selection depends upon attitude towards each destination. Thus, this model suggests that this operationalization of attitudes as an integration of both motives and inhibitors, may be a useful framework for determining whether a destination is likely to be selected from the awareness set and from the evoked set. In a related study, Um and Crompton (1992) concluded that the impact of the motivations and inhibitors components of attitude is likely to vary at different stages of the selection process. Their findings postulate that motivations are more important when selecting destinations from an awareness set to an evoked set, while inhibitors are more significant in selecting a final destination from the evoked set.

3.2.5. The model of Ryan

The major emphasis of **Ryan**'s (1994) model of tourists' behaviour (figure 3.5.) is on tourists' vacation experiences and in the evaluation of vacations after they have finished.

A two stage process is proposed. The first stage models the process of destination selection and the second relates to the actual experience of tourists during their vacation.

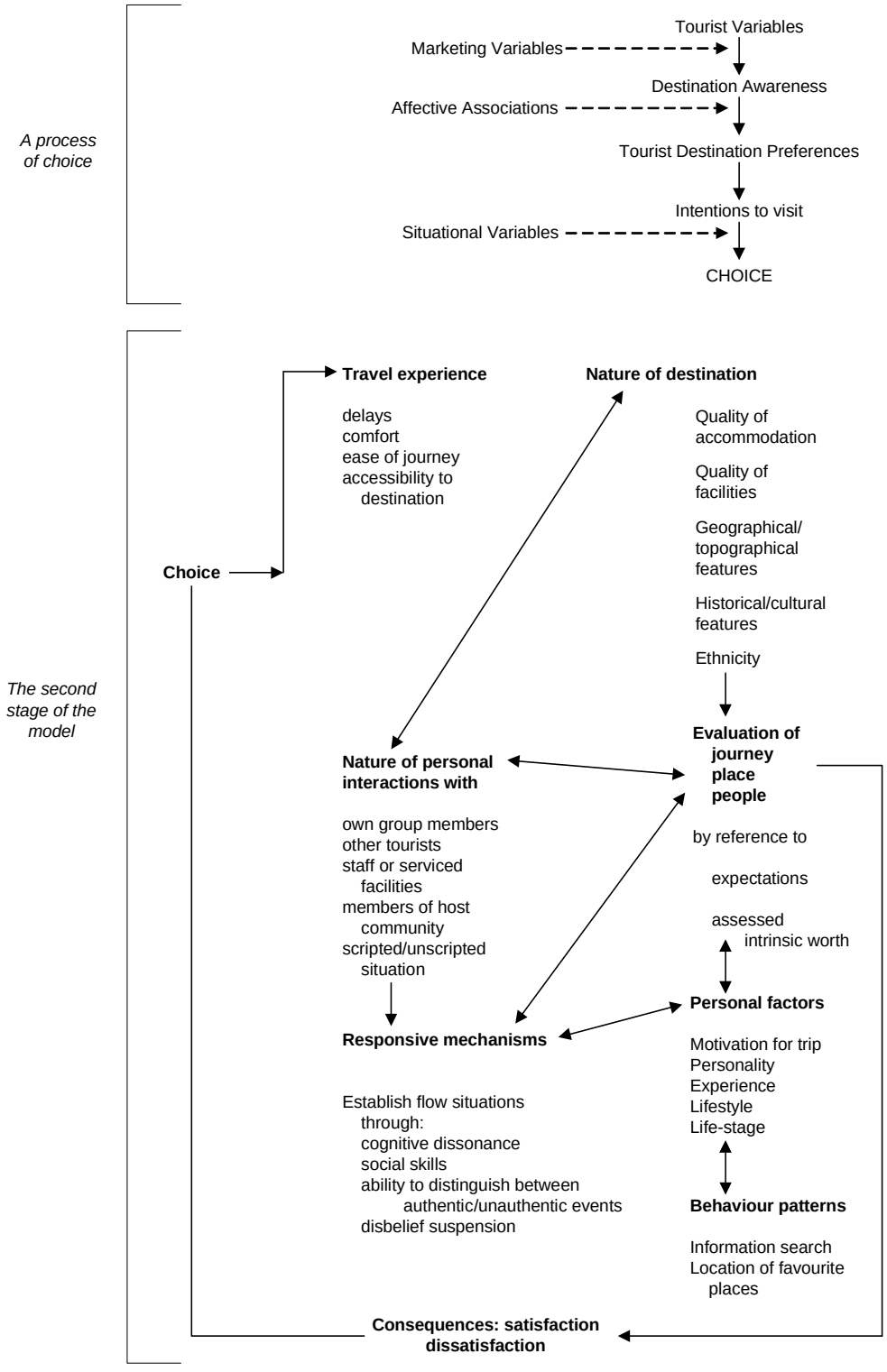
The approach illustrating the destination selection process is very similar to that suggested by Woodside and Lysonski (1989) in that:

(i) tourist variables and marketing variables are considered to be the main determinants of the group of destinations of which tourists are aware;
(ii) destination preferences are developed based on awareness of destinations and on affective associations tourists link to them; and
(iii) the choice of destinations tourists want to visit is a result of the interaction of intention to visit and situational variables.

Like the Woodside and Lysonski (1989) model, Ryan specifies the several kinds of marketing variables, tourist variables and affective associations of destinations that should be considered in this kind of process, and for each of these variables he uses the same categories as Woodside and Lysonski (1989). The awareness set is divided into consideration (evoked, inept and inert) and unavailable sets as in Woodside and Lysonski model (1989), but again the variables that affect this division are not specified.

In the second stage of the model, concerned with the vacation experience, emphasis is placed on the determinants of satisfaction. Vacation experience is operationalized as travel to the destination, nature of the destination (e.g. quality of accommodation, historical/cultural attractions), the nature of interaction with significant others (e.g. other tourists, members of host community), and activities undertaken.

Figure 3.5. – Ryan's model of tourists' behaviour



Source: Ryan (1994)

A gap analysis approach, borrowed from the SERVQUAL model, is used to measure satisfaction with a vacation. In this approach, the degree of satisfaction is a consequence of the extent to which tourists' expectations are met. Expectations created by tourists are related to extrinsic attributes (tangible attributes of the vacation destination) as well as intrinsic attributes (tourists' motivations). However, in this model, tourists are considered as individuals who may react negatively at a destination when their initial expectations are not met. Thus, Ryan suggests that satisfaction is a result not only of congruence between expectations and perceptions, but also of tourists' actions while at the destination including: information acquisition; evaluation of the information acquired; change of evaluations of place; and modification of behaviour.

This model considers that a change in a destination's positioning occurs after a visit to it. However, it does not consider how the positioning changes during the process of selecting a destination.

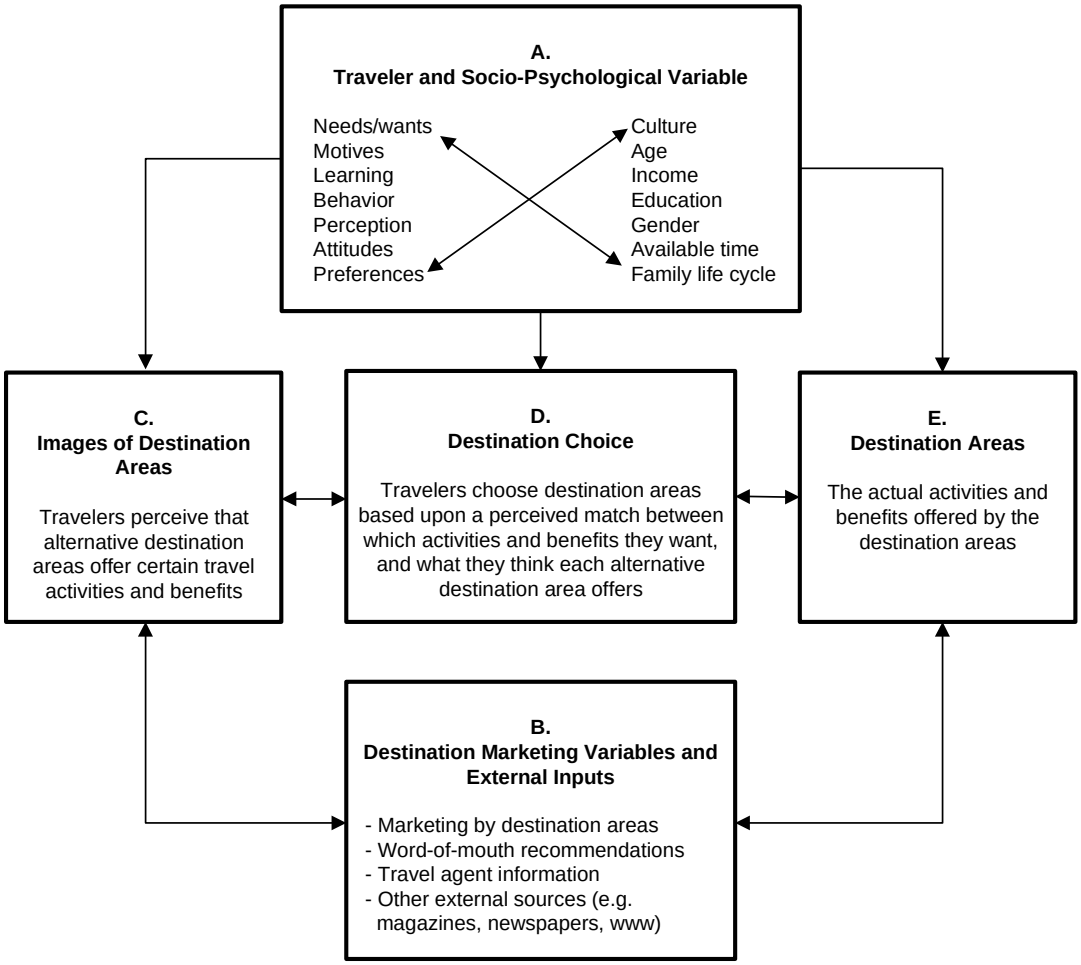
3.2.6. The model of Moscardo, Morrison, Pearce, Lang and O'Leary

In 1996, Morrison in cooperation with Moscardo and others, proposed a much simpler destination choice model. **Moscardo's *et al.*** model (1996) (figure 3.6.) places great emphasis on the assessment of destinations based on the activities and benefits they are perceived to provide. In contrast to some of the early models, it has the virtue of being simple and of recognizing the role of both internal and external constraints in the decision process.

The main components of the model are: tourist and socio-psychological variables, destination marketing variables and external inputs, images of destination areas, destination choice, and destination areas. Tourist and socio-psychological variables include needs, wants, motives, personalities, previous travel experience, culture, age, income, education, available time and family life-cycle stage. Destination marketing variables and external inputs comprise promotional information disseminated by destination areas, worth-of-

mouth, information given by travel intermediaries or acquired through other external sources. Images of destination areas correspond to the perceptions or images of alternative destination areas in which benefits and activities emerge as significant attributes. Destination choice is a choice of a destination that is made on the basis of the match between the activities and benefits tourists want and those they perceive destinations offer. Destination areas correspond to the activities and benefits offered by destinations.

Figure 3.6. – Moscardo's *et al.* model of destination choice



Source: Moscardo *et al.* (1996)

Images of destinations are developed as a result of the influence of tourist and socio-psychological variables, marketing variables, and external inputs. Destinations are then

evaluated and the destinations chosen are those that tourists perceive as being most able to offer benefits they want and activities they seek.

This approach has the virtue of being much simpler than Mill and Morrison's model (1998) and of identifying benefits and activities offered as being specific criteria used in the evaluation of destinations. However, it does not recognize that there are multiple stages in the destination selection process and, therefore, it does not identify phases where the potential impact of variables used to evaluate destinations is likely to be strongest.

There are several other models of destination selection (e.g. Schmoll, 1977; Mathieson and Wall, 1982) which have appeared in the literature but they are not discussed here because they are similar to those which have been analyzed and are not as frequently cited. They also recognize the role of tourists' motivations, destinations' attributes, constraints and information search in selecting destinations, but none of them explain either the interactions among those variables, or the potential for variation of their strength across stages of the decision process. Neither do they address the evolution of choice sets over time, nor the concept of positioning.

3.3. CONCLUSION

The limitations identified in the existing empirical research on destinations' positioning (section 2.4.) suggested direction for the empirical research in this thesis. Thus, this conclusion focuses on the extent to which those empirical limitations are reflected in the decision process models that were reviewed. Special emphasis is given to the extent to which these models incorporate information search, motivations, and familiarity with the destination. In most of the models described here, stages in the destination selection process are recognized. However, the process used by tourists to evaluate destinations as they progress through those stages is not explained.

A majority of the reviewed models do not reflect all of the limitations identified in the empirical research which have been reported on destinations' positioning (section 2.4.). Thus:

(i) The reviewed models do consider a broad range of determinants of positioning, since they postulate the influence on positioning of tourists' motivations, information search, destination attributes and tourists' constraints in selecting a destination.

(ii) In contrast to the empirical research on destination positioning, these models do recognize that information search is likely to have a significant role in destination selection;

(iii) All the reviewed models appear to recognize, either implicitly or explicitly, that tourists' perceptions of destinations may change over the time of the selection process;

(iv) All of these models, with the exception of Mill and Morrison (1998) and Moscardo *et al.* (1996), already incorporate destination choice sets.

Thus, the influence of a number of variables which have been conceptualised as impacting positioning has not yet been empirically tested. Although the reviewed models do incorporate variables and relationships that have not been empirically analysed to this point, they fail to consider other variables or interrelationships which may influence destination positioning.

The models do not consider potential interactions between variables that may act as determinants of positioning. For example, a majority of these models do not consider the moderator effect of information search on positioning. Hence, although most of them consider that information search influences positioning, many ignore the role of the potential determinants of information search, such as: level of involvement with a destination; familiarity with a destination; and structural constraints. Although some models (Moutinho, 1987; Mill and Morrison, 1998) consider, for example, the potential impact of preference for destinations on information search, they fail to explain the type of

relationship that exists between level of involvement with a destination and acquisition of information about that destination.

Most of the models recognize the possibility that the perceptions tourists hold about destinations may change during the evaluation process. However, only two - these of Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Um and Crompton (1990) - incorporate the notion of positioning. Furthermore, only four of the models (Moutinho, 1987; Um and Crompton, 1990; Ryan, 1994; Mill and Morrison, 1998) recognize that beliefs about destinations are likely to change after a visit to them.

Although all these models, with the exceptions of those of Mill and Morrison (1998) and Moscardo *et al.* (1996), incorporate destination choice sets, only those of Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Um and Crompton (1990) address the evolution of choice sets during the process of destination selection, and only the Um and Crompton (1990) model evaluates the influence of specified variables (limited to only motivations and inhibitors) in this process. These models recognize that information search may have a significant role in the evaluation of destinations, but fail to explain how information search influences the positioning of destinations across the evolution and stages of choice sets.

With the exception of Um and Crompton's framework (1990), all the models fail to recognize that the impact of variables and processes that can influence destination positioning - tourists' motivations, information search, destination attributes and tourists' constraints - may vary during different stages of the decision process. Even Um and Crompton (1990) fail to consider changes in the impact of variables other than motivations and inhibitors (e.g. way of acquiring information, and willingness to negotiate constraints).

The empirical research on the positioning of destinations (undertaken in section 2.4.) and the review of the most prominent selection models (carried out in the present chapter), in aggregate, resulted in the identification of an important group of potential determinants of destinations' positioning. However, both the empirical research and the models revealed limitations that suggested possible areas of research for this thesis. With this perspective in

mind, the literature reviews undertaken in the next two chapters had the objective of addressing some of these limitations, that is, of detecting potential relationships between the several determinants of positioning; identifying the type of influence that these determinants have in the positioning of destinations as the process of selecting a destination to visit evolves; understanding how the impact of the determinants of positioning changes during the evolution of process of choosing a destination to visit.

CHAPTER 4 – DETERMINANTS OF THE POSITIONING OF TOURISM AT DIFFERENT STAGES IN THE EVOLUTION OF THE DESTINATION CHOICE PROCESS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The literature review of positioning carried out in section 2.4., noted that there has been limited empirical research designed to identify the factors that determine the positioning of tourism destinations. The positioning research undertaken to this point has been focused on the identification of similarities and dissimilarities among destinations in terms of tourism attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations. Few authors have tried to identify dissimilarities among destinations in terms of other factors, such as structural constraints (e.g. Botha *et al.*, 1999). Further, few researchers have examined the influence of other determinants on destinations' positioning. In addition to structural constraints, motivations and attributes of destinations (attractions and facilities), the determinants of destinations' positioning that have been examined by researchers include: familiarity, season of the year, type of vacation and information search (see section 2.4.).

This chapter is comprised of a literature review on factors that may be determinants of positioning. For each determinant, a review of its conceptualisation and operationalization in the literature is provided. The intent is to better understand the type of influence that each determinant may have in the positioning of destinations.

Although there is little research on the determinants of positioning there is a fairly extensive literature relating to determinants of destinations' images which may offer insights into potential determinants of destinations' positioning. Hence, this section also

will include a review of studies that have addressed the antecedents of destination image. The chapter will focus on the following determinants of positioning and/or image:

(i) familiarity with the destination;
(ii) tourism motivations;
(iii) tourism attractions and facilities;
(iv) structural constraints to travel to the destination; and
(v) information search.

4.2. FAMILIARITY WITH A DESTINATION

4.2.1. Conceptualisation and operationalization of familiarity with a destination

Park and Lessig (1981) argued there were two dimensions of familiarity (p.223):

- "how much a person knows about the product" – which is related to the knowledge structure of an individual's long-term memory;
- "how much a person thinks he(she) knows about the product" – which corresponds to a self-rated measure of familiarity.

Alba and Hutchinson (1987) provided a useful definition of familiarity, and, like Park and Lessig (1981), they contended that familiarity was related to product knowledge. However, they went further and stated that familiarity was one of the components of consumers' product knowledge. They suggested that the product knowledge has two major components: expertise, "which is the ability to perform product-related tasks successfully" (p.411) and familiarity, which corresponds to the number of product related experiences such as purchases, usage of the product, exposure to advertisements, information search, choice and decision making situations.

In the context of tourism, several researchers (Hu and Rithchie, 1993; Milman and Pizam, 1995; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Baloglu, 2001) conceptualized familiarity in terms of number of visits to a destination. Many authors (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Hu and

Rithchie, 1993; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Baloglu, 2001) distinguished those who had never visited the destination before (non-visitors) from those who had previously visited it (visitors). Only a few researchers (e.g. Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Baloglu, 2001) used a more detailed approach by also grouping visitors into first-time visitors (those who only visited the destination once) and repeaters (those who visited the destination more than once). Baloglu (2001) adopted this approach, using number of visits to create a familiarity index conjointly with exposure to destinations' information. The analysis of the studies that operationalize familiarity with the destination in terms of number of visits to that destination confirmed that the most widely used approach is the division of people into two groups – visitors and non-visitors. One of the limitations of the research is that the majority of studies did not further categorised visitors into different groups according to number of visits they made to the destination. Hence, several studies did not distinguish people who made one single visit to the destination from those who made multiple visits to it (e.g. more then ten), although these persons are likely to have a substantially different level of familiarity with the destination.

Prentice and Andersen (2000) provided an important contribution to the operationalization of familiarity with a destination, suggesting that the assessment of this construct should not be restricted to previous visits to the destination, but should also include family or neighbourhood links. They contended that the experience of a destination may also be acquired indirectly by government, language, migration and other generic experience links. This contribution is important, since it corroborates the perspective of Alba and Hutchinson (1987), for whom familiarity with a destination, understood as the experiences related to the destination, went far beyond visits made to the destination. Hu and Ritchie (1993) also postulated that familiarity with a destination was influenced by geographical distance, and also by previous experience in terms of visits and overall knowledge about it. Thus, neighbourhood links can be potential indicators of level of familiarity with a destination. It is suggested in this thesis that the geographical distance people live away from a destination may be a useful indicator of familiarity with that destination. Several empirical studies (e.g. Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002) here reported indicated a negative relationship between geographical distance to a destination and number of visits or visitors

to it. In conclusion, it is suggested that the geographical distance people live from a destination is an important dimension of level of familiarity with that destination. It may also influence: the number of visits made to the destination; the type of information about the destination to which visitors will have access; and other links with the destination mentioned earlier (e.g. language and migration connections).

Geographical distance to a destination usually has been operationalized as a categorical variable, by grouping travellers according to their country of origin, or into sets of countries or regions located at a similar travelling distance from the destination (Chen and Kerstetter, 1999; Field, 1999; Joppe *et al.*, 2001; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). A number of authors (Field, 1999; Joppe *et al.*, 2001) incorporated all the domestic travellers (those who live in the same country as the destination) in the same group, but other researchers assigned them to groups with similar accessibility to a place (Chen and Kerstetter, 1999; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002).

Gursoy (2002) is one of the few authors who used a self-rated measure of familiarity in the context of tourism. In this case, respondents assessed their own familiarity compared to friends, to the average person, and to people who travel a lot.

In the context of tourism, only a few authors (e.g. Baloglu (2001)) operationalized familiarity using indicators of information search. Baloglu (2001) created an index of familiarity based on the number of previous visits and on the number of information sources consulted.

Boo and Busser (2005) assessed familiarity using a group of items that constituted self-rated measures of familiarity, but that also included information search. The items developed by these researchers enabled them to determine whether people: knew the destination well; knew someone who was related with or lived in that destination; and read news about that destination.

In a more recent work, Prentice (2004) extended the operationalization of familiarity, by adopting a multidimensional operationalization of the concept which measured five dimensions of familiarity. This multidimensional measure included some of the dimensions of familiarity previously described in this section:

- informational: the number of information sources used (one or multiple sources);
- experiential: extent of past experiences (previous visits to the destination);
- proximate: usually operationalized as a respondent's nationality;
- self-described: how familiar respondents thought themselves to be with a place;
- educational: the extent of personal educational involvement with a place, either through formal mediated learning or informal mediated learning (e.g. familiarity acquired by reading novels or poems).

The literature reviewed suggests that the most widely used approach to operationalize the familiarity with a destination has been the number of visits to that destination. However, it was recognised that this conceptualisation was too narrow. As a consequence, other dimensions of familiarity have been identified, namely: geographical distance to the destination, information search and self-rated measures of familiarity. However, these features have rarely been used to operationalize familiarity in empirical studies. Further, self-rated measures have the disadvantage of being subjective. Conversely, the geographical distance from the destination has the advantage of being more objective and, additionally, may have a strong impact on issues that may affect experience with the destination (e.g. information about the destination to which people can have access). Hence, it is proposed in this thesis that, both geographic distance from destinations and number of visits to destinations are important dimensions of familiarity that should be taken into consideration. One of the major limitations of previous research is that operationalizations of familiarity frequently have used categorical variables, which aggregate people who have different levels of experience of a destination into the same group.

The operationalization of familiarity proposed by Prentice (2004) is comprehensive and useful, since it is multi-dimensional. In this thesis familiarity with a destination will be measured based on three dimensions:

- two of the above mentioned dimensions – (i) number of previous visits to the destination; and (ii) geographical distance between the destination and a traveller's residence;
- one additional dimensional related to previous visits to the destination – (iii) elapsed time since last visit to the destination.

4.2.2. The influence of familiarity in the process of destination choice

Several authors (e.g. Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Gartner, 1996) have **suggested that visits to a destination may** have an important **influence** on **the image people hold about that destination.** Visits made to the destination were considered by Gartner (1996) as one of the factors that determine destination image. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) also posited that experience with a destination will have an impact on future evaluations of the destination. According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999), "previous visitation or direct experience with a destination is likely to modify the image of the destination".

There is limited research on the potential impact of familiarity on destinations' positioning. To this point most research about the influence of familiarity with a destination on a destination's image has been limited to studies which considered only one destination. Pike (2002) reviewed 142 destination image papers published between 1973 and 2000, and reported that visitation or geographic travel distances were taken into account in approximately twenty of these papers.

Many of these studies compared the image of destinations possessed by people who had already visited the place (visitors) with people who had never visited it before (non-visitors) (e.g. Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Milman and Pizam, 1995). For example, Milman and Pizam (1995) observed that, among people who were

aware of Central Florida, those who never visited it previously held an image of this destination that on some features was significantly different from that of those who had visited it. Similarly, people who had never visited Prince Edward Island (in Canada), and those who had visited it, possessed perceptions of it that significantly differed on two features – nightlife and beaches (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). Visitors to Utah significantly differed from non-visitors on the overall image they had of Utah and on the perceptions they held about four of the five image dimensions – outdoor recreation resources, culture, nightlife and liquor laws (Ahmed, 1996).

These visitor/non-visitor studies suggest that destination images of non-visitors and visitors are likely to significantly differ on at least some attributes. These studies did not reveal whether people who visited a destination only once were likely to have a different image of the destination from those who had visited it more frequently.

Among studies which differentiated among levels of previous visitation, Court and Lupton (1997) found a positive correlation between level of prior visitation and image components of New Mexico. Baloglu (2001), using an index that incorporated number of visits to the destination and number of information sources consulted, found a positive impact of familiarity on both cognitive and affective components of image, and on overall image. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) identified significant differences between the images of Lower Rio Grande Valley possessed by non-visitors and the other two samples (first-timers and repeaters). The images held by these two groups significantly differed on all five image dimensions identified. The images held by first time visitors and repeaters also significantly differed on one factor – social opportunities and attractions. These empirical results suggest that the image people create of a destination is likely to be influenced not only by them having visited the destination, but also by the number of visits people made to it. These empirical findings are from studies that compare groups of different people, who differ in terms of the number of visits made to the destination. A different issue is the extent to which the same person is likely to change the image he(she) holds of the destination when he(she) visits it. Several longitudinal studies have analysed this issue.

Dann (1996) reported that a visit to Barbados changed the image people had before they visited that destination. Changes occurred in the cognitive, affective and conative components of image. Significant changes were also noticed in another longitudinal study undertaken by Pearce (1980). Visitors both to Morocco and Greece revealed significant differences in their image as a result of their visit. Hanlan and Kelly (2005) found the image visitors had of Byron Bay (an Australian coastal destination) was likely to change after they visited it, although this change was usually small. These studies here reviewed suggest the image people hold of a destination is likely to be modified after they visit it. These findings are consistent with results found in studies previously reviewed in this section. Hence, both the longitudinal studies and the studies that compared people who differed in terms of number of previous visits to a destination (visitors and non-visitors, or first-time visitors and repeaters) provided strong support for the hypothesis that the process of visiting a destination leads to a modification of the image of that destination. This may happen because the opportunity to directly observe some sites of the destination may change some perceptions that visitors held of it. This is likely to occur when people visit a destination for the first time and have their first direct contact with it. However, the studies suggested that people who had visited a specific place may also modify their perceptions of the destination in a subsequent visit. Multiple reasons may account for this change in image but an obvious factor would be changes that were introduced in the destination after the last visit.

In several studies where visits influenced destination image, this influence was positive (Court and Lupton, 1997; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). However, in contrast, respondents who had never been to the Lower Rio Grande Valley had a better perspective of this destination than those who had visited it, on three dimensions (social opportunities/attractions, infrastructure/foods/friendly people, and bars/evening entertainment) and a worse perspective on the other two dimensions (natural/cultural amenities and transportation/accommodation) (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991). Similarly, Hanlan and Kelly (2005) reported that 5 of the 11 respondents who visited Byron Bay had a negative change of perceptions about this destination after their visit, whereas 3 indicated positive changes and the other 3 revealed no changes.

Hu and Ritchie (1993) sought to evaluate the impact of familiarity (defined by whether or not people had previously visited a destination) on tourism destinations' attractiveness. Attractiveness was measured by a composite index of importance and performance. They found significant differences between the perceptions of visitors and non-visitors at three of the five destinations considered. Again, visits had a positive impact on some components of destinations' image and a negative impact on others.

These studies suggest that visits have a positive effect on some image dimensions and a negative effect on others (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991; Milman and Pizam, 1995; Ahmed, 1996), or have a positive impact in some visitors and a negative impact on others (Pearce, 1980; Hanlan and Kelly, 2005). The review was extended to research that compared visitors with different levels of experience in terms of number of visits made to the destinations.

Studies where first-time visitors and repeaters were compared – Fakeye and Crompton (1991) and Rittichainuwat *et al.* (2001) -, revealed significant differences in the images of destinations held by these two groups of respondents. In both studies, repeaters had more positive images than first-time visitors.

Additionally, some authors analysed the relationship between familiarity with a destination and the intention to revisit the destination. In research on risk and safety perceptions (Sönmez and Graefe, 1998), previous visits to destinations seem to diminish intent to avoid visiting them and to increase the intent of visiting them again. Kozak (2001) conducted a study with visitors to Mallorca and to Turkey. Among both groups of visitors, repeat visitors (those who were visiting the destination for at least the second time) indicated a higher likelihood of visiting the destination again than first time visitors. These studies suggest that there is likely to be a positive relationship between familiarity with a specific place and intention to visit it in the future.

Care is needed in interpreting the findings that indicate a positive influence of familiarity in intent to visit a destination in the future. This also applies to the interpretation of results showing that repeaters who visited a destination more frequently are likely to have a better image of the destination than those who visited it on fewer occasions. This does not necessarily mean that all visitors have a better image of a destination after they visit it, or that all visitors are likely to prefer visiting destinations with which they are more familiar. For example, Plog (1974, 2001) notes there are people who prefer destinations with which they are more familiar - psychocentrics (more recently designated by Plog as "dependables") and there are people who prefer going to new destinations and interacting with people from different cultures - allocentrics (more recently designated as "venturers"). Further, the positive impact of familiarity on intention to revisit may be related to those who have a better image of a destination being more likely to visit it more times than those who have a worse image of it.

Several researchers have measured the impact of the geographical distance people live from a destination on their images of a destination. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) showed that distance had a small impact on image, since respondents living at different distances from Lower Rio Grande Valley reported significant differences on one of the five image dimensions - "infrastructure, food and friendly people". Similarly, Court and Lupton (1997) found correlations between distance and image dimensions, although the correlations also were low.

Other studies (e.g. Ahmed (1996)) revealed a much stronger relationship between the geographical distance and image. In Ahmed's study (1996), respondents living in six different regions differed on the overall image they possessed of Utah and on the image of the five constituents of global image identified in the study. Other studies (Crompton, 1979a; Joppe *et al.*, 2001; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002) also reported a strong relationship between geographical distance and image of destinations.

The studies reviewed here provided some support for the existence of a relationship between geographical distance from a destination and the image people hold about the

destination, even though it was a weak relationship in some cases. However, the intent of this section is not only to verify if there is a relationship between these constructs, but also to examine what type of influence geographical distance has on the image of the destinations that people create.

Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) found a negative relationship between geographical distance and image of Prince Edward Island. Bonn *et al.* (2005) compared the image of Florida held by three groups of visitors who lived in the following three areas: state of Florida; United States but outside the State of Florida; outside the United States. Visitors had to evaluate the state of Florida in terms of two factors: the service factor and the environmental factor. In both cases, people living outside the United States had a worse image of Florida than the other two groups of visitors.

These results suggest that there is likely to be a negative association between the distance people live from a destination and the image they hold of it. However, other findings offer contrasting conclusions. For example, Crompton (1979a) found that those living farther away from Mexico had a more positive image of it. Joppe *et al.* (2001) analyzed the image of Toronto held by visitors from Canada, USA, and overseas visitors. Although they did not test for the existence of significant differences among the three groups, the comparison of the mean levels of satisfaction on Toronto's features showed that North American visitors were most satisfied with Toronto, followed by overseas visitors, with Canadians being least satisfied. This suggests that people who live closer to the destination are likely to have the most negative image of it, while those who live in a mid distance are those who have a more positive image of the destination.

In other studies, the influence of geographical distance on destinations' image was ambiguous. Calantone *et al.* (1989) compared the image that people from different countries held of several Pacific Rim countries, using multidimensional scaling. A more detailed analysis was made for people coming from America and Japan. It was difficult to reach conclusions because North Americans and Japanese possessed similar perceptions of some countries (e.g. Hong Kong, Hawaii), but different perceptions of others (e.g.

Singapore). Additionally, the large number of countries being compared made it difficult to establish a relationship between distance and perceptions of countries. Ahmed (1996) results are similarly ambiguous. Respondents from the California Region had most positive images of Utah in terms of outdoor recreation resources but they also had the most negative images of Utah regarding liquor laws and nightlife. Other studies (e.g. Hunt, 1975; Chen and Kerstetter, 1999) showed that people living in different places had different images of destinations, at least on some features.

The empirical research reviewed suggests that geographical distance between a respondent's residence and a destination is likely to influence destination images. However, the small number of studies that addressed this issue and the ambiguity of some conclusions suggested that more empirical research of this issue is needed.

The objective of the literature review presented in this section was to discuss findings about the impact of familiarity with a destination which is likely to be a determinant of a destination's position.

The analysis suggests that familiarity with a destination – either measured in terms of number of previous visits or in terms of geographical distance people lived from a destination – is likely to influence the image of a destination. Stronger support is provided for this relationship by studies that measured familiarity in number of visits than by those that measured familiarity by geographical distance. There were fewer studies in which familiarity was assessed in terms of geographical distance, and these studies generally reported a weak relationship between geographical distance and destination image. This suggests that the relationship between geographical distance and destination image should be further studied.

The review suggests that familiarity may influence the image of destinations either positively or negatively. Another conclusion is that familiarity may have a positive or negative impact on the global image people hold about destinations, but it may have a positive impact on some image dimensions and a negative impact on others. Most of the

empirical work has been limited to considering a single destination and to comparing different groups of people who have different levels of familiarity with one destination. As the focus of this thesis is on the elaboration of consideration sets, this thesis will extend past research by comparing the levels of familiarity each person has with the several destinations he(she) considered visiting.

The next sections will discuss other potential determinants of positioning – motivations and perceptions about destination attractions and facilities. A similar format to that adopted for familiarity will be used. The first section will discuss the conceptualisation and operationalization of these determinants; followed by a review of the influence of these determinants on the positioning of destinations across the elaboration of consideration sets.

4.3. MOTIVATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF DESTINATION'S ATTRACTIONS AND FACILITIES

4.3.1. Conceptualisation and operationalization of motivations

Motives correspond to needs that reach a given level of intensity, exerting pressure on people and directing them to seek satisfaction (Kotler *et al.*, 1999). Moutinho (1987) refers to motivation as a state or driving force that pushes people towards an action. This action has the objective of reducing a state of tension and of bringing satisfaction. Hence, motivation may be considered a state or driving force that impels people to certain behaviours with the intention of satisfying their needs. People who are motivated are, then, likely to engage in some activity (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997).

The reasons for engaging in tourism traditionally have been categorized broadly as touring either for business or leisure (United Nations, 1963 in Leiper, 1993**)**. However, in 1995, the WTO proposed a more detailed six category classification of trip purposes:

(i) leisure, recreation and holidays;

(ii) visiting friends and relatives;

(iii) business and professional;

(iv) health treatment;

(v) religion/pilgrimages;

(vi) other.

The scope of this dissertation is confined to tourists in the first category – leisure, recreation and holidays. This category accounts for 52% of international arrivals (WTO, 2006a). Trips undertaken for these reasons - leisure, recreation and holidays - are usually financed by household members and are not determined by tourists' occupations (WTO, 1995). These trips may include visits to friends or relatives, but this reason cannot be the main purpose of the travel. Although the WTO (1995) states the main motive for their first category of trips is relaxation, in this section it will be shown that tourism researchers have consistently identified a set of 8-12 motives for pleasure travel.

An operational problem associated with identifying tourists' motivations is the difficulty tourists have in identifying and articulating their reasons for a trip. They are often difficult for a researcher to unveil (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; Mill and Morrison, 2002).

Motivations seem to correspond to what researchers term push factors - "sociopsychological constructs of the tourists and their environments that predispose the individual to travel" (Uysal and Hagan, 1993, p.801; Dann, 1977). On the other hand, pull factors are "destination attributes that respond to and reinforce push factors of motivations" (Uysal and Hagan, 1993, p.801). Push factors may also be seen as socio-psychological motives that are responsible for creating a desire to travel, whereas pull factors correspond to motives that emanate from destinations and that, consequently, influence the destination a tourist will visit (Dann, 1977; Crompton, 1979; Hudson, 1999).

Murray (1963) developed an early broad "list of human needs that could influence tourist behaviour" (Hudson, 1999, p.8) (including physiological needs and psychological needs) which corresponded to a comprehensive set of push factors. However, the high number of motivations listed in this framework limits its utility.

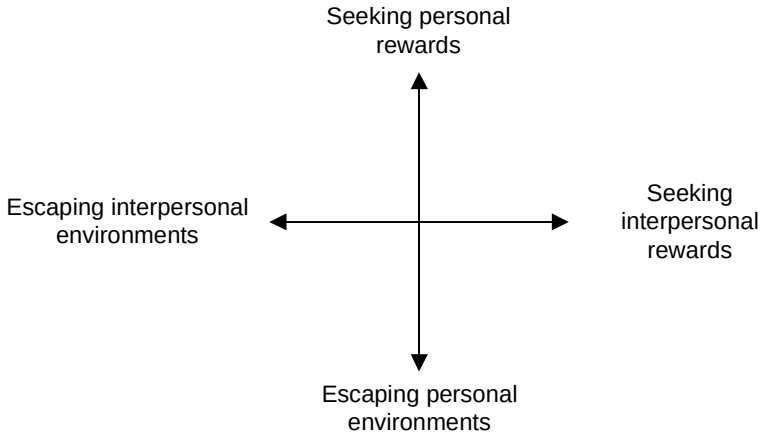
Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) has been considered a useful approach for analysing tourism motivations (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Uysal and Hagan, 1993; Hudson, 1999). Maslow's model suggests that needs can be ranked in the following order, going from lower to higher levels: physiological, safety/security, belonging, recognition/status, self-esteem, and self-actualization. People only feel needs associated with a given level after those of lower levels have been satisfied. Although Maslow's approach has been considered restrictive to be used effectively in the context of tourism (Witt and Wright, 1992 in Hudson, 1999), it has frequently been offered as a conceptualisation in this area (Hudson, 1999) because of its intuitive appeal. Cooper *et al.* (1998) provided a moral interpretation of Maslow's hierarchy, which suggested that people "grow out of their concern for the materialistic aspects of life and become more interested in 'higher' things" (p.33).

In the late 1970s, Crompton (1979) conducted a set of interviews to identify motivations for pleasure vacations. A comprehensive set of socio-psychological motivations emerged that were independent of a destination: "escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction". In addition two cultural motivations were revealed – novelty and education -, which resulted from the cultural features that destinations were able to offer. Taking into account the socio-psychological characteristics and the cultural features that characterize, respectively, the emergent push and pull factors, Crompton (1979) suggested classifying the identified motivations on a cultural–socio-psychological disequilibrium continuum.

Iso-Ahola (1982, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987) proposed a different classification of tourism motivations, suggesting they be categorized into two major "motivational forces" – to escape from the everyday environment and to seek psychological (intrinsic) rewards from participation in leisure activities – (Uysal and Hagan, 1993; McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Hudson, 1999). Each of these forces may be felt at a personal or interpersonal level (figure 4.1). At a personal level, the desire to escape from an everyday environment, may arise, for example, when people want to escape from personal problems, whereas at an

interpersonal level it may be manifested, for example, by a desire to avoid certain people. A tourist may be influenced simultaneously by both forces. For example, a tourist may travel to escape from personal problems (escape personal environment) and, simultaneously, to be with other people (interpersonal reward). The two main motivational forces underlying this framework embrace a majority of the motivations in Crompton's taxonomy (1979) – e.g. the motivation to seek psychological (intrinsic) rewards embraces education, enhancement of kinship relationships and facilitation of social interaction (in conjunction with self-determination and sense of competence or mastery) - while the motivation to escape from the everyday environment encompasses escape from a perceived mundane environment. Iso-Ahola's approach has the advantage of being dynamic, encompassing the possibility that the position a tourist occupies in this framework may change either during a trip or from one trip to another (Uysal and Hagan, 1993, p.800).

Figure 4.1. - Escaping and seeking dimensions of leisure motivation



Source: Iso-Ahola (1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987)

Beard and Ragheb (1983) developed a leisure motivation scale comprised of four constructs that correspond to motivations: the intellectual component (motivation to engage in mental activities); the social component (need for friendship, interpersonal relationships and esteem of others); the competence-mastery component (need to achieve, master, challenge and compete, usually reached through physical activities); and the stimulus avoidance component (need to avoid social contacts, to seek solitude and calm

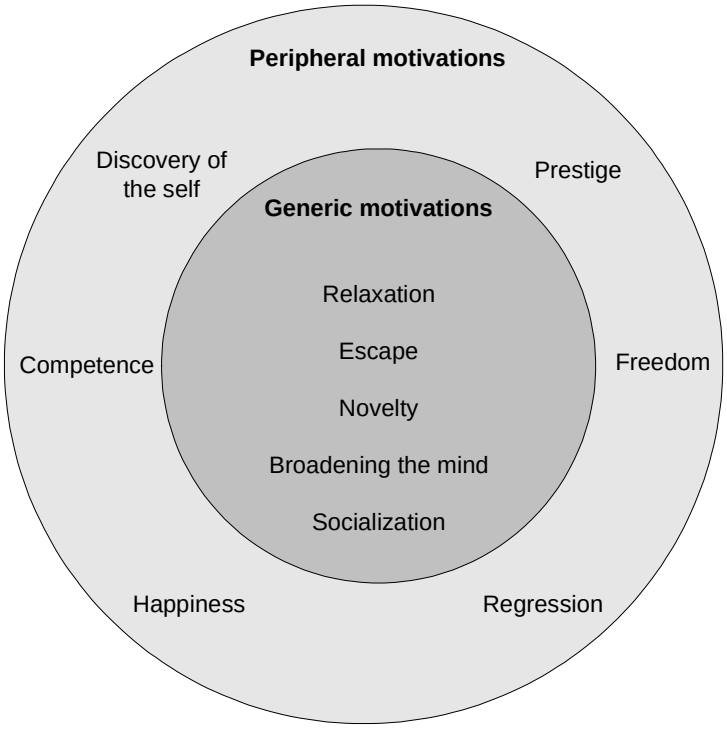
conditions, to rest and unwind). The majority of these constructs embrace the tourism motivations identified by Crompton (1979) and Iso-Ahola (1982, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987) and some authors have explicitly supported the existence of a close relationship between these constructs and tourism motivations (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Pearce, 1982; Ryan, 1991).

McIntosh and Goeldner (1986) proposed another simple four category classification of travel motivators: physical motivators (e.g. related with health, physical rest, sports participation); cultural motivators (e.g. desire to know about areas such as music, dances and religion); interpersonal motivators (e.g. meet new people, visit friends or relatives and escape from certain persons); and status and prestige (personal development, business and study). This framework reinforced the relevance of previous taxonomies and classified them into a simple structure. However, this categorization is broader in that it goes beyond the pleasure travel motivations, to include those associated with other kinds of travel (e.g. visiting friends and relatives, business, conventions and study) (McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986).

Soon after, Krippendorf (1987) provided a comprehensive description of the scope and significance of several tourism motivations. Although he reaffirmed the importance of previously identified motivations (recuperation and regeneration, compensation and social integration, escape, communication, broadening of the mind and self-realization) he also recognized the motivations of a desire for happiness and perceived freedom.

The typologies of tourism motivations referenced above are those most frequently cited in the tourism literature. In aggregate, they comprise the most representative tourism motivations for pleasure travel. The review of these typologies suggests that tourism motivations for pleasure travel may be categorized as: (i) generic motivations, those identified by a majority of the authors cited above due to the central role they can play in tourism; and (ii) peripheral motivations, those referenced by a minority of the authors cited above, what suggests there is no consensus about their importance (figure 4.2.).

Figure 4.2. – Tourism motivations of pleasure travels



Pearce and Caltabiano developed a framework for classifying travel motivations – the travel motivation career (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983; Pearce, 1993) -, based on the work of Maslow (1943), advocating that it is possible to identify a hierarchy of five levels of motivations to travel. The lower levels of motivation were related to relaxation, stimulation (people want to be excited but safe), and developing relationships with others, whereas the higher levels were associated with self-esteem/development of abilities and fulfilment. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983) contend that people are likely to move to the higher motivational levels as they become more experienced in terms of travel. Although it is not possible to establish a direct relationship between the levels of motivation proposed by Pearce and Caltabiano (Pearce and Caltabiano, 1983; Pearce, 1993) and the classification of motivations proposed in this thesis (figure 4.2.), the motivations identified as generic seem to correspond to the lower level motivations of travel career motivations, whereas those designated as peripheral seem to be associated with higher level motivations.

In order to determine whether the motivations previously identified in this thesis (see figure 4.2) were really important, it was decided to review a more recent motivation scale (developed by Fodness, 1994) and the recreation experience preference scales (Manfredo *et al.*, 1996) to see if the motivations identified in this thesis were also incorporated in these scales. The Fodness (1994) scale had 20 motivation items and was based on five motivation's dimensions:

(i) "value expressive – ego-enhancement" (e.g. talking about the vacation after returning home);
(ii) "knowledge function" (e.g. experience different cultures);
(iii) "utilitarian function – punishment minimization" (e.g. resting and relaxing);
(iv) "value expressive – self-esteem" (e.g. want luxury and a nice place to stay while on vacation);
(v) "utilitarian function – reward maximization" (e.g. visit places that one has always wanted to visit).

Manfredo *et al.* (1996) carried out a meta-analysis of the recreation experience preference scales and from it identified a set of dimensions of motivations: achievement/stimulation; autonomy/leadership; risk taking; equipment; family togetherness; similar people; new people; learning; enjoy nature; introspection; creativity; nostalgia; physical fitness; physical rest; escape personal-social pressures; escape physical pressure; social security; teaching-leading others; and risk reduction. Given that the scale developed by Fodness (1994) and the motivational dimensions identified by Manfredo *et al.* (1996) integrate many of the motivations identified in figure 4.2., it is concluded that these authors corroborate the importance of the motivations identified in figure 4.2.. The literature reviewed here suggests that the motivations identified in figure 4.2. have strong relevance in the context of tourism, especially those classified as generic motivations.

The next section identifies the main tourism attractions and the main facilities needed for developing tourism. The conceptualisation of these determinants of positioning is also discussed.

4.3.2. Conceptualisation and operationalization of tourism attractions and facilities

Other important elements that may influence destination choice are the components of the tourism product at the destination. Different typologies for classifying the tourism product into components have been proposed. Middleton and Clarke (2001) suggested that the tourism product of a destination is comprised of the following components:

- destination's attractions;
- destination's facilities and services;
- accessibility of the destination;
- images of the destination;
- price to the consumer (the sum of all costs associated with the trip).

Other approaches to the composition of the tourism product have been proposed by McIntosh *et al.* (1995), Cooper *et al.* (1998) and Mill and Morrison (2002). Similarly to the taxonomy proposed by Middleton and Clarke (2001), the majority of them suggest the existence of a component of attractions (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Mill and Morrison, 2002). Although McIntosh *et al.* (1995) do not explicitly discuss attractions, they refer to the existence of a base of natural, built and cultural resources which should be appealing to visitors. Another element suggested by Middleton and Clarke (2001) - tourism facilities and services (also termed "amenities" by certain authors such as Cooper *et al.* (1998)) -, was also considered to be an important component of the tourism product by many other authors (e.g. McIntosh *et al.* (1995); Cooper *et al.* (1998)). However, it is usual to see this component divided into several subcomponents based on specific types of facilities (e.g. accommodations and transportation, in the case of McIntosh *et al.*, 1995).

Another element identified by some researchers (e.g. Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Mill and Morrison, 2002) as a component of the tourism product is infrastructure. However, this element was not considered as a component of the tourism product by Middleton and Clarke (2001). Infrastructure is, according to Cooper *et al.* (1998), all forms of construction above or below ground needed by an inhabited area for extensive communication with the

outside world as a basis for tourism activity in the area. The type of infrastructure recognised as having an important role in tourism include (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Mill and Morrison, 2002): (i) basic utilities (e.g. electricity, water, communications); (ii) transportation (roads, railways, airports, car-parks); and (iii) related to other services (health care and security). The classifications of the tourism product proposed by McIntosh *et al.* (1995), Cooper *et al.* (1998) and Middleton and Clarke (2001), all incorporate a component of transportation. However, sometimes transportation is identified as a separate component (McIntosh *et al.*, 1995), while on other occasions this element is included as more than one component – e.g. accessibility of a destination and transportation and/or infrastructure (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Mill and Morrison, 2002). Finally, although price and images/perceptions of a destination are widely recognised as important features of tourism destinations, they were not considered as a separate component of the tourism product in the majority of tourism typologies of tourism products (e.g. those suggested by McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Mill and Morrison, 2002).

In this thesis there will be a focus on the elements of the destination that were most frequently identified as components of the tourism product: attractions – which were considered a distinctive component of the tourism product by a majority of authors; and facilities – also identified as an element of the tourism product by most authors, even though they were sometimes referred to as amenities and grouped with different components. Another reason for centring the attention in these elements is that, although other components such as infrastructure are important, it is probable that, in the majority of the cases, potential visitors to destinations only consider visiting destinations that they consider to have reasonable standards of infrastructure (e.g. water, electricity). Thus, their judgement on the attractiveness of destinations in relation to competitors relies most on attractions and facilities.

There is not a consensus definition of **attraction**. Some organisations proposed that attractions were elements whose primary aim was to satisfy the interests of visitors, namely to provide entertainment and education to visitors (Holloway, 2002). However, some

elements that are often considered to be attractions do not satisfy these conditions because their primary aim is to satisfy the needs of other kinds of people (e.g. local residents), or to satisfy other kind of needs that go beyond those previously identified.

Some researchers (e.g. Mill and Morrison, 2002) have referred to attractions as the elements of the tourism supply that have the power to attract people to them. It was also suggested that tourism attractions may be defined as the "elements within the destination's environment which, individually and combined, serve as the primary motivation for tourist visits" (Middleton, 1989, p.573). The definitions of attractions proposed by Mill and Morrison (2002) and Middleton (1989) suggest that attractions correspond to what Dann (1977) and Crompton (1979) termed pull factors (see section 4.3.1.). The conceptualisation proposed by Middleton (1989), which was similar to that of Mill and Morrison (2002), suggests that it is possible that the primarily element of a destination that drives people to visit it may not be a single attraction, but a group of several attractions at the destination. Given the wide acceptance of Middleton's (1989) definition of attractions, it will be adopted in this thesis.

One of the main difficulties in reaching a consensual definition of tourism attractions is the wide variety of tourism attractions that exist. A classification of tourism attractions proposed by Inskeep (1991) suggests that there are three different types of attractions: natural attractions (e.g. climate; scenic beauty; beaches; flora and fauna; parks), cultural attractions (e.g. archaeological sites; museums; historic sites), and special type attractions (e.g. theme parks; shops). Other classifications of attractions have a smaller number of categories – natural and artificial (Cooper *et al.*, 1998) - or a higher number of categories – natural, built, cultural and social (Middleton and Clarke, 2001). The categorisation proposed by Cooper *et al.* (1998) has the disadvantage of grouping attractions into two broad categories, which encompass a wide range of attractions. The typology of attractions suggested by Middleton and Clarke (2001) distinguishes between built attractions (e.g. monuments, golf courses, convention centres, marinas); cultural attractions (e.g. music, art, museums, festivals); and social attractions (e.g. way of life, customs, opportunities for

social encounters). However, a majority of other authors have not supported it, so the classification of attractions adopted in this thesis is that proposed by Inskeep (1991).

Attractions also may be classified on other criteria, such as: (i) ownership; (ii) permanency; and (iii) drawing power (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Mill and Morrison, 2002). Hence, in terms of ownership it is possible to distinguish, for example, private, public and non-profit attractions (Mill and Morrison, 2002). The ownership of an attraction is likely to have implications for its management, for example, level of financial resources available, level of public access. Attractions classified in terms of permanency can be categorized into site attractions (those that are permanent and have a fixed location, being highly dependent on their location), and events (non-permanent attractions whose location can be changed because of market or other features) (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Mill and Morrison, 2002). Another way to categorise attractions is to consider their drawing power. Attractions could be classified as local, regional, national or international, according to whether they were able to attract people only from the local region (local attractions) or, for example, were able to attract people from foreign countries (international attractions).

The **facilities that support the tourism development** do not usually have the power to attract people to visit a destination. However, they make it possible for visitors to stay at the destination and use the attractions. These facilities are needed to serve visitors when they are away from home. Middleton and Clarke (2001) explicitly recognised the role of facilities in enabling people to benefit from attractions: facilities are "elements located in the destination or linked to it, which make it possible for visitors to stay and in other ways enjoy and participate in the attractions" (p.126). The definition of facilities suggested by Middleton and Clarke (2001) will be adopted in this thesis. According to these authors, facilities include:

- accommodation units;
- restaurants, bars and cafés;
- transportation at the destination;
- sports/interest activities (e.g. stadiums; ski schools);
- other facilities (e.g. language schools, health clubs).

Mill and Morrison (2002) also explicitly identified many types of facilities that may support tourism development – accommodation, food and beverage outlets, and other supporting industries (e.g. laundry, duty-free shops). Inskeep (1991) noted the importance of facilities in planning tourism development. He referred to facilities such as: accommodation; tour operators and travel agencies; eating and drinking establishments; tourist information facilities; shopping facilities; money exchange facilities; and public safety facilities.

In the previous two sections the definitions and modes of operationalizing motivations, attractions and facilities that support tourism were discussed. The next section focuses on the impact of these three factors on the process of destination choice.

4.3.3. The influence of motivations and perceptions about destination attributes – attractions and facilities - on the process of destination choice

The first part of this section draws attention to the role of tourism attractions and facilities in determining destinations' competitiveness and on the potential role of motivations (figure 4.2., section 4.3.1.) as driving forces of tourism. In the second part of the section, models of tourism behaviour and empirical studies are reviewed to assess the extent to which motivations, attractions and facilities have been embraced on destination choice models.

In the previous section, five generic motivations (motivations identified by a majority of tourism researchers) and six peripheral motivations (motivations referenced less frequently) were identified. In the next paragraphs the role of the **five generic motivations** as tourism driving forces is described in more detail:

(i) **Relaxation**: Tourism may restore physical and mental capacities (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987). However, the main objective of relaxing isn't necessarily resting, but the reduction of tensions which can be achieved through participation in activities of interest, such as sports (Crompton, 1979; McIntosh

and Goeldner, 1986). The growing number of diseases caused by sedentary life and prosperity makes the opportunity to relax by engaging in mobile activities increasingly important (Krippendorf, 1987). Iso-Ahola (1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987) identified relaxation as a personal reward that tourists may try to achieve when they travel.

(ii) **Escape**: The change to a physically and socially different environment reflects one of the main tourism motivations identified in Crompton's study (1979). The change to a different environment plays such a significant role in tourism that, according to the WTO (1995), persons can only be classified as tourists if they stay at least one night in a place other than that of their usual environment. For tourists, travelling to a place in a different context is important because it may enable them to escape from the routine of life (Krippendorf, 1987), from over-stimulating life situations (Beard and Ragheb, 1983), from other people (family and neighbours) (McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986), and even from themselves (inner emptiness and boredom) (Krippendorf, 1987). This motivation is a central feature of the framework proposed by Iso-Ahola (1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987), where he explicitly stated that tourists may be motivated to escape either from their personal world (e.g. personal problems, troubles, difficulties), or from interpersonal environments (e.g. friends, relatives), or from both of them. The desire to escape from an everyday environment may be related to other tourism motivations, such as relaxation (e.g. tourists decide to visit a place because it is calmer than their usual environments) (Beard and Ragheb, 1983) and novelty (e.g. tourists seek new experiences in order to escape from boredom in their everyday life) (Krippendorf, 1987).

(iii) **Novelty**: Closely associated with the need for escaping from routine is the desire to have a new experience. The ways through which tourists can satisfy this motivation are not restricted to visits to unknown destinations (Iso-Ahola, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987; Crompton, 1979), but may also include other kind of activities (e.g. to see something different in a place about which the tourists already have some information) (Crompton, 1979). Some tourists associate the wish to experience something new with a desire for adventure

(Crompton, 1979). As the possibility of having a new experience is likely to be related to the degree of novelty that the destination presents to the tourists, Crompton (1979) has classified this motive as a pull factor. Krippendorf (1987) postulated that a desire for novelty represented a search for compensation for the routine of everyday life. Moutinho (1987) advocates that tourists may attempt to achieve consistency either by visiting destinations with which they are familiar, or by travelling to unknown places. Although it is possible that each tourist will adopt one of these two behaviours, Moutinho suggests that in the context of tourism often there is a tendency to look for a combination of some mixture of the unknown and the familiar.

(iv) **Socialization**: According to Iso-Ahola (1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987), social interaction is the major interpersonal reward that people attempt to achieve through tourism. Beard and Ragheb (1983) stated that the main social needs underlying participation in leisure activities are the needs for friendship/interpersonal relationships and for receiving the esteem of others. It is recognised that tourism may provide good opportunities for social interaction (Iso-Ahola, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987) and that meeting new people and enhancing relationships (with friends and relatives) may be important tourism motivators (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986). As Crompton (1979) states, the objectives underlying the motivation for meeting new people can be either transitory in nature (e.g. to exchange views during the travel) or permanent (e.g. to seek to establish enduring relationships with other people that will continue after the end of the travel). Although some authors have observed that tourists frequently exhibit greater motivation to interact with each other than with residents of the destination visited, there is not a consensual view on this issue (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987). Some possible reasons accounting for this tendency are the uncertainty, the inhibitions (Krippendorf, 1987) and the low level of identification (Crompton, 1979) that some tourists feel in relation to local residents.

(v) **Broadening the mind**: People may wish to participate in leisure activities that require learning, exploring, discovering, thinking or imagining (Beard and Ragheb, 1983). The will to extend cultural and educational horizons has already been identified as an objective that can be attained through tourism (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; Iso-Ahola, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987). The desire to visit new sites, already identified as a major tourism motivation, can sometimes be a consequence of the desire to learn something new (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986). This motivation is closely related to the highest stage of Maslow's hierarchy - the need for self-actualisation. Given that the satisfaction of this motivation is greatly dependent on the "cultural opportunities" the destination has to offer, Crompton (1979) classified this motive as a pull factor.

Besides generic motivations, the **peripheral motivations** identified may also play an important role as push factors in the context of tourism:

(i) **Discovery of the self:** Because tourism represents an opportunity to change to a different environment and to escape from pressures, it offers tourists the opportunity to express themselves freely and, consequently, to discover more about themselves, and their abilities (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf, 1987). One possible outcome of this personal exploration may be a change in the images tourists hold about themselves (Crompton, 1979).

(ii) **Competence**: A desire to discover one's own abilities has been identified as a tourism motivation. Some people engage in tourism specifically to feel a sensation of competence and mastery (Beard and Ragheb, 1983; Iso-Ahola, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987). This feeling is usually achieved through participation in physical activities (Beard and Ragheb, 1983).

(iii) **Freedom**: The need for escape can be motivated by a need to avoid some kind of pressure (e.g. work obligations, rules). Although this motivation was implicit in several of the tourism motivations previously discussed (Crompton, 1979; McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986), some authors (Iso-Ahola, 1984 in Mannell and Iso-Ahola, 1987; Krippendorf, 1987) explicitly stated that "acting in a free way",

and "having the possibility to make decisions without pressures" may be key tourism motivations.

(iv) **Happiness**: A search for harmony and joy underlies all pleasure travel. However, Krippendorf (1987) emphasises that the potential for experiencing happy moments is an important tourism motivation. Tourists usually find that is easier to experience these kind of moments during holidays than in their everyday routine, with holidays being frequently associated with feelings of joy.

(v) **Prestige**: Although some tourists do recognize the role of this motivation, often they have difficulty in articulating it as a reason for their own travels. This may be explained partially by tourists having a problem with accepting they would be susceptible to this kind of motivation which is socially distasteful, and partially by a decrease in the level of importance of this motivation caused by increased accessibility to travel destinations (Crompton, 1979). Although this motivation may play a significant role in the scope of a pleasure trip, some authors (McIntosh and Goeldner, 1986) primarily associate it with trips undertaken for personal development (e.g. business or study trips).

(vi) **Regression**: As was already mentioned, the sense of being free from certain pressures is a leading force in tourism. Sometimes, this sensation encourages tourists to temporally regress to a behaviour characteristic of that of previous phases of their life-cycles (e.g. adolescence) (Crompton, 1979).

The literature suggests that the motivations previously identified have an important role in influencing a decision to visit a destination. The section proceeds with a brief review of the **potential role of tourism attractions and facilities in competitiveness**. Literature on the competitiveness of destinations was reviewed to gain insights into this issue.

Issues related to tourism attractions and to facilities (e.g. accommodation, cleanliness, food and drink, airport, local transportation, tourist information centre, and issues related to facilities in general) have been identified as potential references for destination benchmarking (Kozak, 2004). Regarding attractions it was suggested that the following issues should be assessed: quality of service at attractions; range of attractions; value for

money; and level of language communication. In terms of facilities, for example in the case of tourism information centres, researchers have been advised to evaluate the following: usefulness of information; quality of service environment; ease of finding the location of the information centre; and level of language communication.

Attractions (such as physiography, climate, culture, activities, entertainment and special events) and facilities (e.g. those related to accessibility), are the basis of the destinations' competitiveness model proposed by Ritchie and Crouch (2003). These elements determine the competitiveness of a destination but, as the model posits, this competitiveness is dependent on the existence of a "policy-driven framework" (p.71) for guiding tourism development of the destination.

Several attractions and facilities were considered as important determinants of destinations' competitiveness by Dwyer and Kim (2003). In their model of destination competitiveness, they proposed that endowed (inherited) and created resources are central elements that affect destinations' competitiveness. Among these resources, they identified attraction attributes (e.g. climate, scenery, natural wonders, fauna and flora, historic/heritage sites, museums, architectural features, traditional arts, variety of cuisine) and facilities (accommodation quality/variety, airports efficiency/quality, tourist information, local transportation efficiency/quality, convention/exhibition facilities (capacity/quality), food services quality/variety, shopping facilities quality).

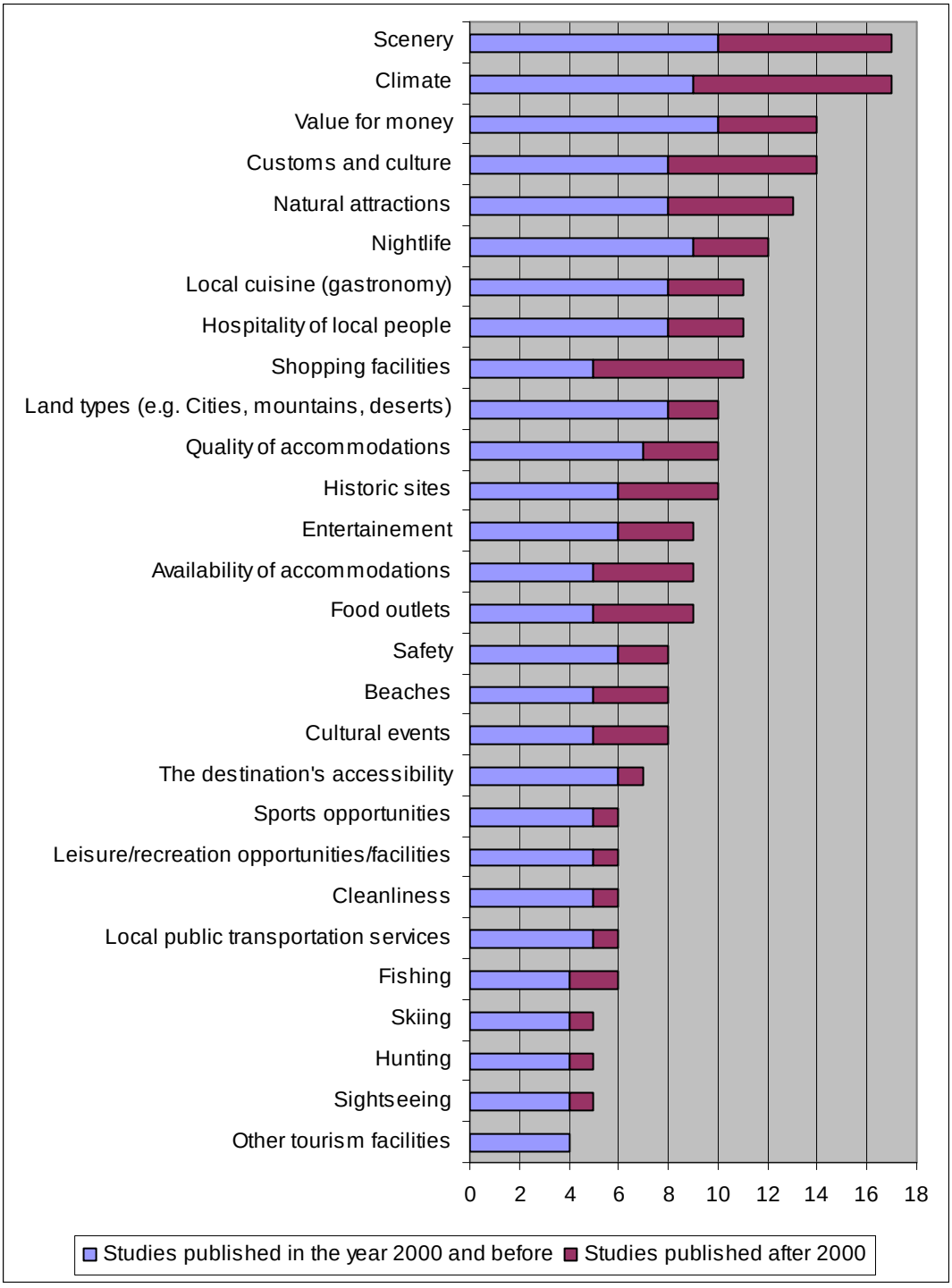
The central role of attractions and facilities in destinations' competitiveness is emphasized by the relatively high number of empirical studies on the positioning of destinations in which attractions and facilities are considered. Destination attributes - attractions and facilities - were considered in more than 85% of the studies of destinations' positioning analysed in section 2.4. The items measuring attractions and facilities most frequently considered in these studies are presented in figure 4.3. The attraction items most often contemplated were "scenery" and "climate", followed by "customs and culture", "natural attractions", "nightlife", "gastronomy", "hospitality of local residents", "historic sites", "entertainment", "beaches" and "cultural events". Among facilities, those most extensively

cited were accommodation, shopping facilities, food outlets and those related with a destination's accessibility. The availability and quality of facilities, especially accommodation, and value for money appear to be key criteria for evaluating and differentiating destinations.

The literature here reviewed suggests that attractions and facilities are central to destinations' competitiveness, since they are refenced in many different kinds of literature related to competitiveness – literature on benchmarking (Kozak, 2004); destination competitiveness models (Dwyer and Kim, 2003; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003); and positioning studies. The literature reviewed to this point suggested that motivations perform an important role in tourism and that attractions and facilities may have an important impact on destinations' competitiveness. However, it did not reveal the extent to which the three factors under review – motivations, attractions and facilities – influence the process visitors use to select destinations. To obtain insights on this issue the most widely cited **destination selection models** were analysed.

According to the Mill and Morrison (1998) model, people develop inclinations towards destinations based on a group of factors that includes motivations. Similarly, the Moutinho (1987) model suggests motives contribute to the formation of preferences regarding the alternate places people consider visiting. The Moscardo *et al.* (1996) model specifies that motivations influence the formation of images of destination areas. Benefits, as well as activities offered by the destination areas, are considered to be important criteria in the selection of destinations. The Um and Crompton model (1990) posits that motives perform a key role in the elaboration of consideration sets. These sets are formed based on attitudes toward a destination, which are the result of motives and inhibitors (situational constraints). This review reveals that motivations have a relevant role in the process of destination choice. Destination choice models were also analysed to understand the role of attractions and facilities.

Figure 4.3. – Items related to attractions and facilities that were more frequently considered in the destinations' positioning studies reviewed in this thesis



Attractions and facilities are referred to explicitly in some models, and implicitly in others. Perceptions of what a destination has to offer in terms of activities is a relevant criterion for selecting destinations to visit in the Moscardo *et al.* (1996) model. Woodside and Lysonski

(1989) and Ryan (1994) both refer to the influence of marketing variables in this context. For these authors, the marketing variables correspond to the traditional marketing mix of destinations, which include the attractions and facilities. Woodside and Lysonski (1989) suggest that the marketing variables influence the formation of consideration sets, but do not explicitly explain how these variables intervene in their creation. Um and Crompton (1990) go further and propose that beliefs about the destinations seem to have an important influence on the formation of consideration sets at several stages in the decision process. In the early stages these beliefs are more likely to result from passive information acquisition, while in later stages, beliefs tend to be more influenced by active information search.

Crouch and Ritchie (1998) proposed a specific model for convention site selection which considered four features related to attractions and facilities:

(i) meeting facilities (e.g. capacity, service);
(ii) accommodation facilities (e.g. capacity, service);
(iii) extra-conference opportunities (e.g. entertainment, shopping, recreation opportunities);
(iv) site environment (e.g. climate, setting, hospitality).

In this model, both attractions and facilities played a key role in the choice of convention sites.

This review suggests that perceptions of attractions and facilities are key elements in destination choice models. However, these elements are not explicitly referenced in some models. The models suggest that attractions and facilities are likely to influence the elaboration of consideration sets, but only the Um and Crompton model (1990) proposes that attractions and facilities are likely to have a differing influence at different stages of the formation of consideration sets. None of the models explicitly explain how destinations included in different consideration sets differ in terms of people's perceptions of attractions and facilities.

In conclusion, the analysis of the destination selection models suggests that people's motivations, and perceptions about attributes of both attractions and facilities have been

central elements of these models. However, the models offer little guide on how visitors evaluate and select destinations based on these determinants.

In order to find empirical support for the impact of motivations, attractions and facilities on destination selection, and to understand the type of influence these factors have on destination choice, empirical studies were analysed. The review begins by examining the influence of motivations and perceptions of destination attributes (attractions and facilities) on **intention to visit a destination**.

Court and Lupton (1997) found respondents who intended to visit the state of New Mexico differed from those who were undecided about visiting it, in that they reported more positive perceptions of the state's cultural amenities, natural amenities, and participative recreational activities. Those who were undecided about visiting New Mexico had a superior image of the state's cultural amenities and participative recreational activities compared to those who indicated they would not visit the state.

Intent to visit the Lower Rio Grande Valley in the future appeared to be related to the perception that this destination offers good opportunities for "family togetherness" and possesses "cultural opportunities and attractions" (Crompton *et al.*, 1992). Those respondents who intended to visit the destination perceived the Valley as being significantly better in these features than those who were not willing to visit it. In Baloglu's study (2000), intention to visit Turkey was positively related to the three cognitive dimensions of destination image considered – quality of experience, attractions and value/environment – and with the motivation of knowledge. In another study (Sönmez and Sirakaya, 2002), perceptions of safety, hospitality, attractions and perceptions about the ability of the destination to satisfy some motivations – e.g. relaxation – seemed to be important factors in deciding to choose Turkey as respondents' next destination to visit. The intention to revisit Prince Edward Island (in Canada), was also positively influenced by the image of selected destination attributes (e.g. museums, shopping, antique/craft shopping, local cuisine, nightlife) and the destination's ability to satisfy selected motivations (to relax) (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002).

The empirical studies provided support for the influence of a destination's ability to satisfy motivations (Sönmez and Sirakaya, 2002), perceptions of destination attributes (attractions and facilities) (Court and Lupton, 1997), or both determinants (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Baloglu, 2000; Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002), on intention to visit a destination. Intention to visit is likely to be higher when visitors have more positive perceptions of that destination in terms of, at least, one of the following features - its ability to satisfy motivations, its attractions and/or its facilities. However, these studies were confined to the likelihood of visiting a single destination, and did not indicate whether or not these determinants were likely to be used to compare destinations and to prefer visiting one destination rather than others. Hence, the influence that both motivations and perceptions of destination attractions and facilities have in the **destinations' selection process** was reviewed.

Kim *et al.* (2005) analysed overseas golf destinations preferred by Koreans. They found that the golf destinations preferred by the Koreans were Hawaii and Australia, that were, in the opinion of Koreans, superior to the other five countries considered in the study on seven attributes: beautiful scenery; climate; comfortable environment; safety; recognition of golf resort; golf resort facilities; and family tour programme. Similarly, when the most attractive honeymoon destinations for Koreans (Kim and Agrusa, 2005) were analysed, Hawaii and Australia were superior to other overseas destinations in terms of good weather and scenery. In both these studies, respondents had to evaluate all destinations presented to them irrespective of whether they had considered visiting them.

In a conjoint model created by Dellaert *et al.* (1997), Dutch tourists, when choosing a destination for city breaks, were significantly influenced by several attractions and facilities: special sights, shopping facilities, restaurant and bars and hotel quality. Although this model provides insights, like all the conjoint models, it is based on a hypothetical decision scenario, with the several options being created by the researchers.

In a survey carried out by the EU (1998) about the holidays of Europeans, respondents were requested to indicate the criteria they used for selecting travel destinations. This survey suggests that attractions, facilities and motivations were important criteria in the destination choices made by Europeans. The most important attractions criteria for choosing destinations to visit were: scenery and climate, followed by historical interest and environment and by entertainment, which was much less important. In terms of facilities, Europeans seem to assign importance, in decreasing order, to accommodation, food and drink facilities and security. Motivations also played an important role in the Europeans' destination choice, with the most important ones being novelty, meeting people and visiting friends.

The study of Tyrrell *et al.* (2001) compared people who had visited different destinations. For the Japanese who want to discover culture, Europe was a more attractive destination than the options given. So, motivations played key role in destination choices made by Japanese overseas travellers. Botha *et al.*'s (1999) respondents were asked to identify two destinations they considered visiting besides that they were actually visiting which was Sun/Lost City. Sun/Lost City was demonstrated to be far superior to its main competitors (destinations people considered visiting) in terms of entertainment, facilities (e.g. car parking, safety), wildlife viewing and somewhat superior in physical environment (e.g. scenery, weather).

Although several kinds of studies - positioning studies, conjoint analysis surveys and surveys who compared groups of people who visited different destinations - suggest that the motivations, facilities and attractions may influence destination choice, research reviewed here was limited because some of the work:

- provided destination options that were not "real", but were created by researchers;
- did not refer to destinations that respondents had actually considered visiting;
- only reported assessments of a single destination.

Hence, only one of the studies reviewed compared several destinations that a respondent had really considered visiting. This suggests that further research is needed in this context.

One of the aims of this thesis will be to provide further insights into the influence of motivations and perceptions about attractions and facilities in the process of destination choice and, specifically, in the elaboration of consideration sets.

After having reviewed the potential role of perceptions about destinations' attractions and facilities and their ability to satisfy motivations, the next section will focuses on another determinant in the selection of destinations – structural constraints.

4.4. STRUCTURAL CONSTRAINTS TO TRAVEL TO THE DESTINATION

4.4.1. Conceptualisation and operationalization of constraints

Researchers have focused on factors that inhibit people from participating in leisure and tourism. In the leisure field, this research emerged at the beginning of the 1980s (Jackson, 1988). Initially the focus was on identifying barriers that prevented people interested in participating in a given activity from engaging in it (those factors that intervened between preference for an activity and participation in it) (Crawford and Godbey, 1987). However, this broadened to recognize that constraints comprise not only factors that intervene between preferences and participation, but also affect preferences (Crawford and Godbey, 1987; Jackson and Scott, 1999).

Researchers have proposed several taxonomies for classifying leisure constraints including (Jackson, 1988): internal vs. external; management control vs. no control; blocking vs. inhibiting; intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural; antecedent vs. intervening.

In this dissertation, the taxonomy used is that proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987), in which constraints are classified as intrapersonal, interpersonal or structural. Intrapersonal constraints are "individual psychological states and attributes which interact with leisure preferences" (p.122). For example: stress, anxiety, and subjective evaluations of the appropriateness and availability of various leisure activities. Interpersonal constraints are

barriers arising as a "result of interpersonal interaction or the relationship between individuals' characteristics" (p.123). These barriers may be a consequence of a marital relationship, parent-child relationship, or of interpersonal relationships extending beyond the family. These constraints may interact both with preferences for, and participation in, leisure activities. Structural barriers are defined as "intervening factors between leisure preference and participation" (p.124). For example: climate, financial resources, and time commitments.

This classification is adopted in this thesis because: (i) it is already widely used in the tourism literature; and (ii) the existence of these three dimensions of constraints is supported by empirical studies in this field (Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter, 2002; Raymore *et al.*, 1993). The main focus of this dissertation is on structural constraints. The decision to limit considering to structural constraints resulted from the following:

- the non-practicability of studying the impact of all three types of constraints in the behaviour of visitors, because it would make the survey unreasonably long given the number of variables under study;
- a literature review suggested that, although other types of constraints may have more impact in specific situations, in studies carried out in tourism (Scott and Jackson, 1996; Gilbert and Hudson, 2000; Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002; Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter, 2002; DGT, 2004; Daniels *et al.*, 2005) structural constraints were dominant;
- structural constraints are most easily addressed by those responsible for the development of tourism and, consequently, more useful for developing a positioning strategy.

4.4.2. The structural constraints

Swarbrooke and Horner (1999) identify some of the factors that prevent people from travelling and some of the variables that influence the type of trip which are external to the tourist. Similarly, Mill and Morrison (1992) stated that even though a person is motivated

to travel and perceives a destination as being attractive, that person may be constrained by external factors. According to McIntosh *et al.* (1995), the demand for travel is a function of both a person's propensity to travel and the resistance to the link existing between the areas of origin and destination. Whereas the propensity to travel is largely affected by factors such as the psychographic and demographic features of the individual, resistance is associated with factors that determine the attractiveness of the destinations, which includes both the attributes of the destinations and features that are external to them (McIntosh *et al.*, 1995). Cooper *et al.* (1998) noted that tourism demand is comprised not only of people who participated in tourism - the effective or actual demand -, but also of people who do not travel - the suppressed demand. In characterizing suppressed demand, they classify the factors that prevent people from travelling into two categories: circumstances that individuals are experiencing and may change in the future (e.g. purchasing power), and problems related to the supply (e.g. weather, terrorism). Individuals being affected by the first factor constitute potential demand, while those influenced by the latter factors are deferred demand. Although there are multiple problems with supply that may cause deferred demand, the examples given by Cooper *et al.* (1998) suggest that these constraints will be related to facilities or other features that complement tourism attractions. Hence, constraints that are external to both the individual and the destination may be barriers to travel.

Latent demand – "those segments of the population who would like to participate but for whom constraints negatively affect participation" (Jackson, 1988, p.205) - has been addressed by researchers since the beginning of the nineties (Mill and Morrison, 1992; McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999). Structural constraints largely correspond to situational characteristics that, according to Belk (1974 cited by Belk, 1975) are characteristics that have a "demonstrable and systematic effect on current behaviour", characteristic of a specific situation (time and place of observation), but that resulted neither from "personal (intra-individual)" nor from "stimulus (choice alternative) attributes". Belk (1975, p.159) identified five categories of situational characteristics: physical surroundings; social surroundings; temporal perspective; task definition; and antecedent states. Several authors have adopted Belk's categorization of

constraints (1975) (Assael, 1998,) or very similar classifications (e.g. Solomon (1999) groups physical and social surrounding into the same set). A brief characterization of each of the five categories of constraints follows:

(i) Physical surroundings: location (geographical and institutional), physical features at the location and surroundings such as the "décor, sounds, aromas, lighting, weather, and visible configurations of merchandise or other material" (Belk, 1975).

(ii) Social surroundings: characteristics and roles of individuals who are at the location, as well as interactions among them (Belk, 1975). Since some consumers may view the purchase of a product or service as an opportunity for meeting people and attaining status, it should be accepted that consumer behaviour may be affected by the type of consumers who buy a product/service or go to a certain store (Solomon, 1999; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001). One negative situational influence that may result both from the social and physical surroundings is crowding (Solomon, 1999; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001).

(iii) Temporal perspective: includes the occasion on which an action is undertaken (which may be expressed in terms of season of the year or time of the day); the elapsed time in relation to a certain event in the past or in the future (e.g. time since last purchase, time until payday); and time commitments (Belk, 1975). Some authors (Solomon, 1999; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001) emphasize that time may influence the type of product or service that will be bought (e.g. some products/services are more appropriate to a specific moment; consumers may look for products that facilitate saving time). Time available for a purchase may influence the decision process associated with a purchase (e.g. information search); the store where the product or service will be bought; and even the method used for buying (e.g. going to a store or shopping through the internet) (Hawkins *et al.*, 2001). Time people have to wait for a product or service also may affect the perception a person holds about it (Solomon, 1999).

(iv) Task definition: the purpose of the action that will be undertaken (e.g. the purpose of shopping for a specific product or service) (Belk, 1975; Solomon, 1999; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001).

(v) Antecedent states: features which correspond to states immediately antecedent to a specific situation and that people bring to that situation (Belk, 1975). These features may include momentary moods (e.g. anxiety and excitement) and momentary conditions (e.g. fatigue, amount of money possessed at a certain moment) (Belk, 1975; Solomon, 1999; Hawkins *et al.*, 2001).

Although this typology of constraints is widely accepted in the context of consumer behaviour, leisure researchers have identified specific constraints that affect leisure participation. Their taxonomies offer useful frameworks of structural constraints. A good example of such a typology was provided by Jackson (1993), who reviewed 28 empirical papers that had been published since 1980 and identified a set of five leisure constraint dimensions that consistently emerged in those studies:

(i) transportation and access;
(ii) facilities and opportunities;
(iii) skills and abilities;
(iv) costs; and
(v) time.

This classification has been supported by other authors (Gilbert and Hudson, 2000; Jackson and Scott, 1999,) and constituted the basis of several empirical studies (Jackson, 1993; Hultsman, 1995). Although Jackson's classification of constraints (1993) does not include some categories of situational factors identified by Belk (1975) (e.g. task definition), it incorporates many specific features from several of Belk's situational categories that may influence leisure participation. In particular, Jackson (1993) considers specific features from the following situational categories: physical surroundings (e.g. transportation, access and facilities); social surroundings (e.g. crowding is considered under the scope of facilities); temporal perspective (e.g. time commitments); and antecedent states (e.g. features related with money such as costs of equipment, admission fees). This suggests that although situational factors may be important leisure constraints, some situational variables have a more important role than others in this context. Although Jackson (1993) did not specify the relationship between the constraints he considered and the three categories of constraints suggested by Crawford and Godbey (1987), a majority of the five constraints'

dimensions he identified were structural constraints. The only category that is not so easily identified with structural constraints is that of skills and abilities, which have consistently been classified as intrapersonal constraints (see Gilbert and Hudson, 2000; Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter, 2002).

Constraints for travelling or visiting tourism attractions have been referenced in discussions of determinants of tourism demand (Mill and Morrison, 1992; McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Likorish and Jenkins, 2002), and, as noted by Swarbrooke and Horner (1999), they may act as facilitators or inhibitors. However, in this context, few researchers specifically refer to inhibitors, barriers or constraints for participating in tourism (Mill and Morrison, 1992; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999). A review of literature in the field of tourism (Tian *et al*., 1996; Botha *et al*., 1999; Cooper *et al*., 1998; Stemerding *et al*., 1999; Gilbert and Hudson, 2000; Hudson, 2000; Lawson and Thyne, 2000; Fleischer and Pizam, 2002; Daniels *et al.*, 2005) reveals that the main structural constraints in the context of tourism seem to be: financial, time, accessibility, weather, planning, governmental, safety and information. The impact of each of those constraints in visitors' behaviour and on destination choice, is reviewed in the next section.

4.4.3. The influence of the structural constraints in the process of destination choice

Structural constraints are barriers that prevent people interested in participating in an activity from engaging in it. When travelling to a place, visitors have to pay for the travel between the origin and the destination, and for other features including the services provided at the destination (e.g. accommodation). The price of travel and the prices of other products and services purchased by travellers seem to be the main financial constraints in tourism (Mill and Morrison, 1992; McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Middleton and Clarke, 2001). Many researchers have analysed the role of potential **financial constraints** such as: the lack of money in general (Tian *et al.*, 1996; Hudson, 2000); the unavailability of low cost or good value for money vacations (Tian *et al.*, 1996;

Hudson, 2000); the cost of travel (Botha *et al.*, 1999; Lawson and Thyne, 2000); cost of accommodation (Botha *et al.*, 1999); cost of attractions (Tian *et al.*, 1996; Botha *et al.*, 1999); and cost of equipment needed (Hudson, 2000). Financial constraints have been shown to have a strong impact on decisions to visit specific destinations (Botha *et al.*, 1999) or to engage in activities requiring high expenses (e.g. skiing) (Hudson, 2000). The data from the DGT (2004) indicated that between 1998 and 2003, economic motives were the main reason why people living in Portugal[1] did not take vacations (table 4.1.). During this period, at least half of the people who did not take vacations stated it was for economic reasons.

Similar values, only a little bit lower, were found in a study undertaken by the EU in 1998, which showed that financial constraints were obstacles to going on holiday among EU citizens[2]. According to this study, 46% of EU citizens had not gone on holidays in 1997 and financial barriers were the reason most frequently mentioned for not travelling (referred by 49% of the citizens who had not gone on holidays), followed by family or personal reasons (24%), professional reasons (17%), and health reasons (16%).

Table 4.1. – Reasons why people living in Portugal did not take vacations

(%)

Reasons	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Economic motives	51	62	61	49	52	63
Professional motives	25	19	19	24	21	21
Personal health or family reasons	6	5	12	10	12	10
Retired/elderly people	7	12	3	6	7	7
Family motives	3	-	-	3	4	5
Did not have right to have vacations	6	6	3	3	3	4
Unemployed	5	3	2	5	6	5
Does not usually go on vacations	3	3	4	3	5	5
Other reasons	-	-	-	4	-	-

Source: DGT (2004)

[1] People surveyed in this study corresponded to those living in Mainland Portugal and who were, at least, 15 years old.

[2] Only people living in the following 15 European countries were surveyed: Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, Luxembourg, United Kingdom, Finland, France, Italy, Spain, Germany, Austria, Belgium, Greece, Portugal, and Ireland.

Level of prices is likely to be an indicator of the competitiveness of a country in tourism. However, its impact is likely to vary among individuals and be dependent on factors such as (McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Middleton and Clarke, 2001): the cost of production of products and services at the destination; technology; differences between the levels of prices at the origin and destination countries; exchange rates; income; employment; purchasing power; and paid holiday entitlement. Thus, price competitiveness is one of the indices incorporated into the competitiveness monitor created by the WTTC (2006). This index is based on data such as the price of hotels and the taxes on goods and services.

In Fleischer and Pizam's (2002) study on senior Israeli citizens, level of income, in conjunction with health, is an inhibitor to travel. However, level of income had most influence on the decision of whether or not to take a vacation. Participation in tourism is likely to increase as income increases. However, this may happen only up to a threshold point. At higher income levels, tourism participation may be precluded by other factors (e.g. high quantity of work commitments) (Mill and Morrison, 1992; Cooper *et al.*, 1998). Discretionary income (income available after paying taxes and expenses for basic living needs) (Mill and Morrison, 1992; Likorish and Jenkins, 2002) is probably a better indicator of the probability of travelling for leisure purposes than gross income (Cooper *et al.*, 1998). Beyond the decision of whether or not to participate in tourism, level of income may influence level of expenditures and, consequently, the type of vacations undertaken (Mill and Morrison, 1992). Family income has been affected by the increase in the number of families with double incomes in the last decade (Mill and Morrison, 1992; Poon, 1993; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Likorish and Jenkins, 2002). Paid holiday entitlement, which has increased substantially, is also posited to be positively related to tourism participation (Likorish and Jenkins, 2002). However, as with income, this effect is more likely to be detected at lower levels of paid holiday entitlement (Cooper *et al.*, 1998). Although the intention of this thesis is not to analyze the relationships among demographic variables and tourism constraints, it is noted that several authors call attention to the prominence in tourism of segments with high levels of discretionary income – e.g. middle-age couples (Cooper *et al.*, 1998). The situation of being unemployed or uncertainty about employment, also is likely to affect tourism participation (Cooper *et al.*, 1998).

Meta-analyses of demand models (Crouch, 1994; Lim, 1997) have corroborated that level of prices and level of income had a considerable impact on volume of tourism demand. In these meta-analyses, transportation costs also had an important role in determining demand.

Lack of time is another constraint to tourism (Mill and Morrison, 1992; McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; Likorish and Jenkins, 2002). Work commitments and family commitments are mainly responsible for restriction of time noted by potential leisure travellers (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999). The increase of females in the workforce has contributed to a decrease in the time available for leisure among women. However, paid holiday entitlement led to a decrease in the effect of time constraints caused by work commitments (Mill and Morrison, 1992; Likorish and Jenkins, 2002), by reducing the average working week, the average working year and the average working life (Likorish and Jenkins, 2002). The right to paid holidays also contributed to people having more extended periods away from work (Mill and Morrison, 1992). Although some factors have contributed to diminishing time constraints for tourism, other variables such as growing urbanization have had an opposite effect. This variable has led to an increase in time required for travelling between home and work and to raising stress, and reduced discretionary time. Further, other leisure commitments (e.g. going out with friends; going to the cinema) also may inhibit people from travelling and visiting destinations (Mill and Morrison, 1992).

The time required for travelling between origins and destinations may represent a constraint for tourists (Mill and Morrison, 1992). The impact of this was reduced by the introduction of jet aircraft at the end of the 1950s (Poon, 1993; McIntosh *et al.*, 1995). Nevertheless, lack of time as a tourism constraint has been consistently verified (Tian *et al.*, 1996; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Hudson, 2000). Although time constraints were the least important structural inhibitor in Hudson's study (2000) of skiing participation, they had a major impact in other tourism studies. In a study of reasons for not visiting Galveston museums (Tian *et al.*, 1996), time constraints, although not having such a high impact as

difficulties in accessibility, were more important than financial features. Time constraints were a strong reason for not visiting destinations considered in Botha *et al.*'s (1999) study, and although they were not as important as the majority of financial constraints, they were much more significant than safety constraints. Another type of time constraint identified was the time of departure necessary for a trip to visit a specific attraction (Stemerding *et al.*, 1999). This was shown to influence both the decision of whether or not to visit amusement parks and, in cases where people decided to visit these kinds of attractions, it influenced the selected park (Stemerding *et al.*, 1999).

Difficulties in accessibility have been identified consistently as a major tourism constraint (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Likorish and Jenkins, 2002). Not having a car is considered an important barrier to personal mobility and, consequently, to engaging in tourism, especially for destinations and specific attractions that are only accessible by car (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; Middleton and Clarke, 2001). With increases in car ownership the impact of this barrier has become lower. For long distance travel, the influence of difficulties in accessibility has been attenuated by the adoption of new technologies in air transport, which was mentioned previously in the context of other constraints (Likorish and Jenkins, 2002).

In empirical studies carried out in the field of tourism, distance between origin and destination has been the feature most often used to assess accessibility (see Tian *et al.*, 1996; Botha *et al.*, 1999). Only a few studies referred to the inconvenience of locations and to the difficulties of getting to the destinations (Tian *et al.*, 1996). Difficulties in accessibility were, in the study of Tian *et al.* (1996), important reasons for not visiting the museums of Galveston, while Botha *et al.* (1999) found accessibility constraints were important for not visiting destinations. Daniels *et al.* (2005) surveyed people with physical disabilities, and reported that transportation was one of the most frequently cited constraints inhibiting pleasure travel. These studies corroborate the contention that accessibility, assessed either in terms of general difficulty to get to destinations or specifically referring to the distance between origins and destinations, is likely to inhibit

people from visiting specific destinations. The limited empirical research that exists suggests that additional empirical research should be undertaken on the influence of accessibility.

It is widely recognized that **weather** is a determinant of tourism demand and that time of the year may influence level of attractiveness of a destination or of a particular attraction (McIntosh *et al.*, 1995; Middleton and Clarke, 2001). Empirical research has shown, for example, weather may influence the decision of whether or not to visit amusement parks and the type of parks visited (Stemerding *et al.*, 1999), as well as the rate of participation in activities such as skiing (Tian *et al.*, 1996).

The **high level of effort involved in planning a trip** (including equipment buying or renting) is a potential tourism **constraint** (Hudson, 2000). This factor's impact varies according to the type of activity travellers want to engage in and, for a majority of people, this variable is not as constraining as other factors (e.g. financial constraints). Hudson's study (2000) revealed that planning was a higher constraint for potential skiers than time commitments, but it had a lower impact on their decisions concerning tourism participation than financial or weather constraints.

Government may influence tourism demand through the legislation adopted. Government may contribute to diminishing some tourism constraints (e.g. financial or time constraints) by providing the right to paid vacations, or by increasing the amount of vacation time. The main **constraints** on tourism **imposed by government** are related to visa requirements (Cooper *et al.*, 1998; Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999; Middleton and Clarke, 2001), the introduction of tourism related taxes (e.g. airport and hotel taxes) (Swarbrooke and Horner, 1999), and restrictions on periods when people may go on vacation (Middleton and Clarke, 2001).

Fear has been identified as a potential barrier to tourism (Cooper *et al.*, 1998). Botha *et al.* (1999) examined the impact of fear of crime, fear of travelling far away, lack of self-confidence and concerns about health in travelling. These factors were shown to have some

impact on the decision of whether or not to travel to destinations but their influence was smaller than that of other structural constraints, such as financial and time constraints.

Lack of information about a tourism destination or attractions may be a **constraint** to tourism, especially for first-time visitors (Likorish and Jenkins, 2002). Given the high intangibility of tourism, and that, people may live a long distance from a destination they want to visit, information assumes a role in destination choice. Technological evolutions in media, such as television, cable-television and the internet, have resulted in a growing exposure to information about destinations (Middleton and Clarke, 2001). As Rita (2001) remarks, many tourism companies are being forced to adopt the internet for promotion and sales to remain competitive. Lack of access to information sources such as the internet may be a barrier to obtaining knowledge (Middleton and Clarke, 2001).

The literature previously reviewed suggests that structural constraints may have an impact in the general context of tourism. However, since this thesis focuses on protected areas, a more focused literature review was undertaken, to identify potential **structural constraints** that may inhibit **visits to protected areas**. Little research has been undertaken on this. Scott and Jackson's (1996) study in Greater Cleveland identified constraints to the use of public parks in an urban area. Perceptions of lack of safety and lack of information were, with time, the constraints that had most impact on nonusers and infrequent users of parks. Interpersonal constraints as well as "not liking to participate in nature and outdoor activities", perceptions of crowding, and poor health, were considered to be of middle importance by respondents. Problems of access to parks, financial features and overdevelopment seemed not to be so important to this sample as the other features. Even though accessibility was not considered a major problem in going to urban parks, strategies to encourage people's use of parks that received most support among respondents were accessibility improvement (i.e. developing parks closer to home), provision of information, increase in safety, and provision of more activities.

Studies of constraints to visiting natural resource areas in Michigan (Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter, 2002) and state parks in Pennsylvania (Kerstetter *et al.*, 2002), provided useful

insights into the potential barriers that may limit visits to protected areas. Although these studies corroborate some of the findings of Scott and Jackson's (1996) study, especially concerning the high impact of time constraints, they also differed on some points, suggesting that constraints for visiting protected areas outside urban areas differ from those related to the use of public parks in urban environments. They indicated the strongest barriers inhibiting visiting these places were time commitments, financial constraints and weather conditions, followed by interpersonal constraints, equipment constraints, overcrowding and lack of skills/ability. Lack of facilities, existence of rules, and safety were not strong barriers. There was no consensus among respondents to the two studies about the importance of accessibility and the lack of information.

Although these empirical studies provide some insights about potential constraints for visiting protected areas, the low number of studies, their limited scope in geographical terms (both were carried on in United States), differences between the ranges of constraints included in the studies, and the finding that a majority of these constraints did not have a very high impact upon respondents' behaviour suggests that research in this area is still exploratory.

The literature reviewed in this section suggests that structural constraints are likely to affect the decision of whether or not to visit protected areas. It did not address the extent to which these constraints affected the process of comparing alternate destinations and **selecting a destination to visit**.

The impact of structural constraints is incorporated in destination selection models (e.g. those proposed by Moutinho (1987), Mill and Morrison (1998), Woodside and Lysonski (1989), Um and Crompton (1990), and Ryan (1994)). The Um and Crompton model (1990) suggests that these constraints are likely to influence the destination choice only after the formation of the awareness set, whereas other variables, such as the passive acquisition of information, are likely to intervene earlier in this process. The other models postulate that these constraints are likely to have an impact after an intention of visiting a destination was formed.

Marsinko *et al.* (2002) observed that the cost incurred to go on a trip, comprised of the time and money people have to spend, negatively affected the number of trips people carried out to places that offer wildlife recreation opportunities. Lawson and Thyne (2000) reported that crowding and expense were the main reasons New Zealanders avoided visiting destinations located in New Zealand. In the same study, physical danger, concerns relating to different languages and political issues were noted by New Zealanders as the most important inhibitors to travelling to overseas destinations. Some destinations of the Asia Pacific region (namely Australia, New Zealand, China, and South Korea) seem to be the destinations most attractive to the Japanese who wanted to avoid risk when travelling overseas (Tyrrell *et al.*, 2001). These studies corroborate the contention that structural constraints are likely to inhibit people from visiting destinations. However, they do not explain how these factors affected the way potential visitors compare alternate destinations and select a destination to visit.

Dellaert *et al.* (1997) showed that when Dutch tourists chose destinations and transportation for city breaks, they were significantly influenced by two potential financial constraints: hotel price and price of bus travel. Woodside and Carr (1988) confirmed the total cost of a trip has a strong influence on the formation of preferences for destinations.

The EU (1998) study showed that financial constraints had a high influence in preventing people from travelling, but also revealed that financial issues had a key influence on selecting a destination to visit. Cost of travel and cost of accommodation were, respectively, the third and fourth criteria most frequently cited by European citizens when choosing a destination to visit.

Distance to the beach and price were the most important elements in the preference of winter beach vacationers for five hypothetical destinations located in five islands (Barbados, Cuba, Jamaica, Martinique and St. Vincent) (Haider and Ewing, 1990). In Scott *et al.*'s study (1978), one of the reasons for preferring Massachusetts instead of other New England States was the perception that Massachusetts had better highway access. However,

this factor was only significant to visitors who lived at least 200 miles away from Massachusetts, and not to people living nearer. Thus, potential accessibility constraints are most likely to influence destination choice when the visitors live farther away from the destination they consider visiting.

The literature reviewed in this section suggests that structural constraints are likely to influence intention to visit destinations and formation of preferences for destinations. It indicates that people are likely to avoid destinations to which they feel high constraints. However, there is little research addressing the impact of structural constraints on the decision to visit one destination rather than others.

4.5. INFORMATION SEARCH ABOUT A DESTINATION

4.5.1. Conceptualisation and operationalization of information search

As Bettman (1979) remarks, in the pursuit of particular goals, "consumers attend to, perceive and process information" (p. 105). Information acquisition is defined as "the set of activities or means by which consumers are exposed to various environmental stimuli and begin to process them" (adapted from Loudon and Bitta, 1988). Bettman (1979) stated that acquisition of information includes both information search (i.e. active acquisition of information) and information which consumers acquire without actively looking for it. Hence, several authors (e.g. Kotler, 1997; Solomon, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001) have observed that acquisition of information may occur either passively or actively. As Bettman (1979) suggests, information search can be further classified into internal search and retrieval, and external search. Whereas internal search represents the process of searching information from memory, external search refers to searching for information in sources external to the individual[3].

[3] A minority of authors (Blackwell *et al.*, 2001) have extended the definition of information search to also encompass passive acquisition of information, but this is not widely supported.

The term search in the context of this thesis is used to refer to the process of active information acquisition. However, it should be noted that sometimes it may be difficult to distinguish between passive and active information acquisition because, in some cases, it is hard to assess whether people had to make some effort in order to obtain the information. This thesis will only focus on the process of external information search.

There are multiple search strategies consumers may adopt. The most accepted classifications of these strategies are based on three criteria:

(i) moment at which the search begins (Bettman, 1979; Assael, 1998, p.244; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001, p.107);

(ii) direction of search (Murray, 1991, p.11; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997; Assael, 1998, pp.244-245; Blackwell et al., 2001, pp.73, 106-107), that corresponds to the type of information sought (Bettman, 1979).

(iii) degree of search, that is the amount of information sought (Bettman, 1979).

When considering the **moment when search begins**, researchers distinguish between ongoing and prepurchase search strategies. In ongoing search strategies, the information search is carried out on a regular basis. Ongoing search corresponds to "search activities that are independent of specific purchase needs or decisions" (Bloch *et al.*, 1986). In contrast, prepurchase search strategies are motivated by the requirement to make a purchase decision. Given the impracticability of assessing all the ongoing information search efforts made by individuals, this thesis will focus on prepurchase search.

Another criterion for classifying search strategies is **direction of search**. According to Bettman (1979), two different areas of research have emerged in direction of search. One relates to type of information sought, and pieces of information analyzed (e.g. attributes, decision criteria), while the other refers to type of information sources consulted. In the tourism field, the latter type of research is more developed. Friends and relatives were the external source most used by respondents in studies undertaken by several authors - Gitelson and Crompton (1983), Raitz and Dakhil (1989), Rao *et al.* (1992), Fodness and Murray (1998), Lo *et al*. (2004) – and they were the second most important source reported

by Snepenger *et al.* (1990). In a Portugal study – the MotivTur (Cunha *et al.*, 2005) – where more than 5040 foreign visitors were interviewed, word-of-mouth was the source most frequently used to obtain information about Portugal. Conversations with friends and family have also been revealed as useful ways for obtaining information about parks (Lee *et al.,* 2002). These studies suggest that friends and family are the external information source most widely used by potential visitors of destinations.

Brochures and guides were the most important source reported in Bieger and Laesser's (2001) study and they were ranked between second and fourth in several other studies (Gitelson and Crompton, 1983; Snepenger *et al.*, 1990; Fodness and Murray, 1998; Cunha *et al.*, 2005). Travel agents often were cited. However, their importance varies widely among studies (e.g. it was most important in Snepenger *et al.* (1990) but not important in the Gitelson and Crompton (1983) and Fodness and Murray (1998) studies). This may be related to variables such as travel distance, level of familiarity with the destination and level of experience of travellers.

Other information sources that were considered in some of the studies mentioned in the previous paragraphs were: travel fairs, newspapers, magazines, books, television and radio. Television and radio have been identified in other studies (Rao *et al.*, 1992; Bieger and Laesser, 2001; Lo *et al.*, 2004).

This review suggests that worth-of-mouth – specifically friends and relatives - is the primary information source. Brochures and guides are frequently cited, and television and radio have a lesser role. The influence of travel agents, varies widely among studies.

Information sources frequently are **classified according to whether they are dominated by marketers or not, and whether they are personal or impersonal**. Personal communication channels are those that "involve two or more persons communicating directly with each other … face to face, person to audience, over the telephone or through the mails" (Kotler, 1997, pp.616-617), whereas nonpersonal communication channels correspond to those that "carry messages without personal contact or interaction" (p.619).

Some frequently referenced examples of personal information sources are friends, family and salespeople (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Kotler (1997) proposes a categorization of these information sources into three groups: advocate channels, which correspond to company salespeople; expert channels, which correspond to experts independent of the company; and social channels, which correspond to "neighbours, friends, family members and associates".

Some of the most frequently referenced impersonal sources are advertisements and articles (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Some authors extend the list of impersonal sources to include consumer reports (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Impersonal sources that are based on new technologies, such as direct-mail brochures and internet web sites, are referenced by recent authors (Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Kotler (1997) distinguishes three kinds of impersonal information sources: the media, which encompasses print, broadcast, electronic and display media; atmospheres, that correspond to environments that encourage a purchase; and events, that correspond to activities designed to deliver specific messages (e.g. sponsorship).

Marketer-dominated information sources include all sources that are controlled by the supplier of a service with the intention of persuading consumers to purchase it (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001). In contrast, nonmarketer-dominated sources are those that the supplier of the service is not able to control (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001). Among examples of marketer-dominated information sources, some of the most frequently referenced are advertisements, in-store displays and salespeople (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001). Other examples of these kinds of sources are brochures (Sheth *et al.*, 1999). As far as nonmarketer-dominated information sources are concerned, there is agreement that news delivered by the media, and information from friends and family are good examples (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001). However, some authors have expanded the range of nonmarketer-dominated information sources, to include other sources such as: consumer reports (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001), experience (Sheth *et al.*, 1999) and government publications (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001).

Information sources that are based on new technologies can deliver information that is not controlled by the suppliers of the service (e.g. bulletin boards delivered through the internet) (Sheth *et al.*, 1999). However, suppliers may take advantage of these sources to deliver information to consumers (e.g. creation of web sites) (Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Blackwell *et al.*, 2001). Hence, information sources that are based on new technologies can be either nonmarketer-dominated or marketer-dominated.

To this point, references to information sources' classification systems made in this thesis have been restricted to categorizations based on a single criterion. However, some authors (e.g. Sheth *et al.*, 1999) have categorized information sources using both the criteria discussed above (personal vs. impersonal, and level of dependence on marketers).

Some information sources' categorizations are even more complex, taking into account more than two criteria. In these cases, the general criteria are replaced by more specific criteria, such as whether the information is provided by public sources, retailers, or even acquired by consumers through brand examination. For example, Kotler *et al.* (1999) categorize information sources into four groups: personal sources (family, friends, neighbours and acquaintances); commercial sources (advertising, salespeople, dealers, packaging, and displays); public sources (mass media and consumer-rating organizations); and experiential sources (handling, examining and using the product). Similarly, Beatty and Smith (1987) suggested a categorization of search strategies based on the kind of information sources consulted using multiple criteria. They created a classification based on search indices developed by several authors and proposed a categorization of search strategies based on the following criteria: media search (based on television, radio, newspapers and magazine ads); retailer search (based on visits or phone calls made to retailers, examination of brands and models); interpersonal search (based on friends, relatives and neighbours); and neutral sources (based on consumer reports or similar neutral publications) (Beatty and Smith, 1987).

After analyzing the categorizations of Kotler *et al.* (1999) and Beatty and Smith (1987), it may be concluded that, although complex classifications of information sources are based on multiple specific criteria that are explicitly identified, marketers' dominance and personal contact are the central underlying core of those classifications. Both of the categorizations proposed by Kotler *et al.* (1999) and Beatty and Smith (1987) assign nonmarketer-dominated personal sources into one specific category. Moreover, while Kotler *et al.* (1999) put more emphasis on the criterion of marketers' dominance (classifying the remaining sources as commercial, public or experiential), Beatty and Smith (1987) recognize its importance by creating a special category for neutral sources.

The review of these classification systems facilitates the identification of criteria that may be used to categorize information sources. Although a wide range of criteria may be used for this purpose, it was shown here that the level of marketers' dominance and the distinction of being personal or impersonal are those most frequently used.

Another important criterion in the classification of search strategies is the **degree of search**. Bettman's (1979) definition of degree of search refers to the amount of information sought, but this construct includes measures of the level of effort consumers invest in searching for information (e.g. time spent searching for information). In this thesis, the degree of search is considered in its broad sense, encompassing not only the amount of information sought but also the effort consumers invested in searching for information and, consequently, it is termed strength of information search.

Many researchers (Claxton *et al.*, 1974; Newman and Lockeman, 1975; Westbrook and Fornell, 1979; Kiel and Layton, 1981; Furse *et al.*, 1984; Urbany, 1986; Beatty and Smith, 1987; Urbany *et al.*, 1989; Ratchford and Srinivasan, 1993; Moorthy *et al.*, 1997) have tried to assess the effort consumers invest in information search. The data most frequently collected within this context addressed:

(i) overall time spent in searching for information (e.g. Claxton *et al.*, 1974; Kiel and Layton, 1981);

(ii) number of different kinds of information sources consulted (e.g. Claxton *et al.*, 1974; Newman and Lockeman, 1975);

(iii) number of alternate brands about which consumers searched for information (e.g. Claxton *et al.*, 1974; Jacoby *et al.*, 1978; Moore and Lehmann, 1980; Kiel and Layton, 1981; Beatty and Smith, 1987; Urbany *et al.*, 1989; Lee *et al.*, 1999);

(iv) number of items about which consumers searched for information (considering an item as being a specific attribute of a given brand) (e.g. Newman and Lockeman, 1975; Jacoby *et al.*, 1978; Moore and Lehmann, 1980; Lee *et al.*, 1999).

In most studies, the last two operationalizations have been assessed, using:

- hypothetical purchase scenarios developed on computers (e.g. with Information Display Boards (IDB)) (Jacoby *et al.*, 1978; Lee *et al.*, 1999);
- blank matrixes with cards (Moore and Lehmann, 1980); or
- through the use of observational measures (Newman and Lockeman, 1975).

The widespread adoption of these three measures reflects the difficulty of collecting these kinds of data in real contexts because of the difficulty respondents have with remembering and transmitting such complex information. This issue is going to be addressed in this thesis, and the number of alternate brands and items about which consumers search for information will be identified without resorting to hypothetical purchase scenarios.

While four types of data most frequently collected were identified above, most tourism studies considered only one of these features, thus providing only a partial view of visitors' search efforts. In this thesis, this limitation was overcome by incorporating several indicators of information search. Some researchers (e.g. Kiel and Layton, 1981; Beatty and Smith, 1987; Ratchford and Srinivasan, 1993; Moorthy *et al.*, 1997), from fields other than tourism, have developed **indexes of search** that have the advantages of incorporating several indicators of strength of information search.

Kiel and Layton (1981) developed an index that was based on 12 different measures of search. These 12 measures were factor analyzed and four sub-indexes were created. While three of these sub-indexes corresponded to three different kinds of information sources – dealers, media and interpersonal sources -, the other was a time dimension (including introspection time and search time). Among the four sub-indexes the most complex were those of "dealer search" and "media search", because of the number and variety of items they included. Dealer search encompassed the number of retailers visited, the time spent visiting them and the number of contacts (phone calls and trips) established with them; while media search included advertisements and written material used, as well as deliberation measures (other brands and dealers considered). Interpersonal search was a simpler sub-index incorporating the number of specific interpersonal sources contacted (number of opinion leaders and owners contacted). Each sub-index was calculated by standardizing its items and subsequently adding them together. An aggregate index was created by summing the four sub-indexes.

Beatty and Smith (1987) created a search index using a similar approach to that adopted by Kiel and Layton (1981) which reflected consumers' search in different contexts: impersonal, neutral, media and retailers. The impersonal and neutral searches were measured in terms of the number of different sources consulted, and the media search in terms of advertisements read. However, the retailer search measure was more complex consisting of the number of contacts established with retailers, the number of hours spent in retail stores and the number of brands or models examined. The four kinds of search that comprised the total search index were weighted by the number of items used to measure each kind of search and were calculated based on procedures suggested by Bennett and Mandell (1969) and Duncan and Olshavsky (1982). Each item was standardized and the total search index was comprised of a linear combination of the four sub-indexes of search (referring to the four kinds of information sources contemplated). Beatty and Smith (1987) adopted a similar approach to that used by Kiel and Layton (1981) for calculating an aggregate index of search from several sub-indexes, but they differed in the components of search considered. Beatty and Smith (1987) did not incorporate a dimension of the total

time spent in search and expanded the range of information sources considered by Kiel and Layton (1981) so that neutral sources also were embraced.

There are search indexes, such as those of Ratchford and Srinivasan (1993) and Moorthy *et al.* (1997), that are simpler than the two described above. The index created by Ratchford and Srinivasan (1993) was exclusively based on measures expressed in terms of time. Their index measured the aggregate time consumers spent on nine categories of search, namely: talking to friends and relatives, reading advertisements, driving to/from dealers, looking around showrooms and talking to salesmen.

Moorthy *et al.*'s (1997) index was similarly simple, but it had a different focus - the quantity of relevant information obtained from seven information sources (not including neutral sources). This measure corresponded to an unweighted sum of the information acquired from the several sources, and was measured by a seven-point scale.

In this thesis, the difficulty in obtaining information regarding strength of information led to the use of three indicators of strength of search. Nevertheless, as a general principle, it is recognized that indexes of search which encompass more indicators are likely to provide a more accurate perspective of global search effort. The literature reviewed concerning the indexes of strength of search suggested two principles that should be followed when creating these indexes:

- not to include within the same index multiple components that capture the same feature (e.g. number of different travel agents visited and number of visits to travel agents);
- to standardize index variable ratings that are assessed with different scales.

In the **tourism field** most researchers (Botha *et al.*, 1999; Boo and Busser, 2005) assessed the strength of information search using self-rated measures of search that incorporated a high level of subjectivity. Only a few such as Baloglu and McCleary (1999) used more objective measures such as the number of information sources consulted.

This thesis attempts to overcome the limitations identified on information search, by using three of the four indicators identified as being most frequently used in fields other than tourism for assessing the strength of information search:

- time spent searching information about the destination;
- number of information sources consulted to collect information about the destination;
- number of destination attributes about which information was collected.
- the fourth indicator which was not used was inappropriate in this context since it referred to the number of brands about which information was sought, and here the purpose is to assess strength of information search in relation to a single destination.

This thesis goes further than many other studies in that it assesses strength of information in a real destination choice scenario, rather than in a hypothetical context.

This discussion of the conceptualisation and operationalization of information search is followed in the next section by a review of the influence of information search on destination choice.

4.5.2. The influence of information search in destination choice decisions

This section begins with an analysis of literature that focus on the impact of information search in the formation of destination images and proceeds with an analysis of the influence of search in the process of selecting a destination to visit.

Kotler *et al*. (1999) contend that information search usually emerges from need recognition and usually leads to the development of perceptions about products. In the field of tourism, Gunn (1988) suggested there were two kinds of image – organic image and induced image. An organic image results from the acquisition of information about a destination from sources that are not controlled by marketers of the destination area – e.g. newspaper

articles, books. In contrast, an induced image is created by marketers engaged in promoting destinations, through media such as television, magazines advertisements and trade fairs. It has been suggested by Fakeye and Crompton (1991) that people are likely to form organic images of a large number of destinations.

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) added a temporal perspective to Gunn's (1988) perspective in their elaboration of destination image. They suggest that whereas people tend to form organic images of a large number of destinations, it is when they plan to travel that induced images of destinations are more likely to develop, as a result of the effort made to acquire information about the destinations. When induced images develop they are likely to be assessed against organic images and the resulting evaluation will influence the process of selecting a destination to visit (Fakeye and Crompton, 1991).

Gartner (1996) categorized image formation agents into eight groups (p.472):

- overt induced I – traditional forms of advertising (e.g. brochures, TV, radio, print);
- overt induced II – information received from organizations that have a vested interest in the travel decision process but that are not directly associated with any particular destination (e.g. tour operators);
- covert induced I – second-party endorsement of products via traditional forms of advertising;
- covert induced II – second-party endorsement through apparently unbiased reports (e.g. newspaper articles written by people who participated in a familiarization trip at the destination);
- autonomous – news and popular culture (e.g. documentaries, movies)
- unsolicited organic – unsolicited information received from friends and relatives;
- solicited organic – solicited information received from friends and relatives;
- organic – actual visitation.

The first seven groups refer to information sources that may be used to obtain information about a destination, while the eighth group reflects familiarity as a result of visits made to the destination. Thus, Gartner (1996) explicitly recognized that information search and familiarity influenced creation of a destination's image.

Goosens (2000) offered a tourism model for pleasure travel in which the mental images of destinations had a central role in explaining tourism behaviour. According to this model, potential visitors form images of destinations in their minds, being influenced by factors such as their own needs, motives, drives, level of involvement, information search and information processing. Major outcomes of the image formation process are behavioural intentions concerning the destinations and the travel choice process itself.

Several conceptualisations suggest that information search has an important role in the formation of a destination's image and a number of empirical studies have tested this premise.

Elaborating upon the work of authors such as Gunn (1988), Fakeye and Crompton (1991) and Gartner (1996), Baloglu and McCleary (1999) empirically tested a model of image formation which used three measures representing:

(i) global evaluation of destination image;
(ii) a cognitive evaluation;
(iii) an affective evaluation of the destination.

Empirical tests of the model showed that cognitive image had an impact in both affective image and overall evaluation. Affective image also influenced overall evaluation. Baloglu and McCleary (1999) also tried to assess the impact of the number and type of information sources on the cognitive component of image. They found that the number of information sources used by respondents had a positive impact on the three cognitive components considered, showing that the more sources of information respondents used, the more positive is the cognitive image they hold of the destination. The source that had most significant and positive impact on cognitive image was worth-of-mouth, followed by advertisement.

Similarly, Boo and Busser (2005) reported that information use (assessed by whether people stated that the information had been useful, important, reliable, and by whether they considered there was plenty of information) led to the formation of more positive cognitive

images of a destination. Several information sources – induced, autonomous and organic - also had an impact on the cognitive image of Lanzarote (Beerli and Martín, 2004). Most of these sources contributed to creation of a positive image of a destination (e.g. travel agencies contributed to creating a positive image of Lanzarote regarding sun and sand), but a few sources had a negative impact on some image features (e.g. family and friends had a negative influence on perceptions about social and environmental features).

In an exploratory study of backpacker tourists who had visited or intended to visit Byron Bay - located along the Eastern coast of Australia – (Hanlan and Kelly, 2005), a majority of the tourists reported that the information had changed the image they had of Byron Bay. Several information sources, namely word-of-mouth, brochures and magazines found in hostels, the Lonely Planet Guide and intermediaries, seemed to have had a role in the formation of an image of Byron Bay. Word-of-mouth influenced a majority of the attributes respondents used to characterise Byron Bay. However, other information sources provided specific kinds of information. For example, intermediaries were primary informing how to get to the destination, whereas brochures and magazines provided information about what to do and to see.

Relatively little empirical research has been undertaken on this issue. However, it does indicate that information search is likely to influence people's perceptions about a destination. Most of the empirical research undertaken suggested that the strength of information search is likely to have a positive impact on image. This thesis will extend knowledge on this issue by using objective rather than self-assessed measures, and by incorporating measures not previously used, such as the number of destination attributes about which information was collected.

This review of the influence of information search on destinations' image continues with a review of literature on the **influence of information search in destination choice**. Several researchers (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997; Sheth *et al.*, 1999; Solomon, 1999) have suggested that the information search is sometimes used to evaluate product alternatives, and for

deciding which products to buy and/or to use. However, little research has been reported on the tourism literature on this issue.

Beerli and Martín (2004) argued that information sources may influence the type of destinations that people consider visiting. The destination choice models analysed in section 3.2. suggested that information search may perform a crucial role in choice of destination. Some authors note its potential influence in the development of destination images (Moscardo *et al.*, 1996), while others go further and refer to its potential impact in the elaboration of consideration sets (e.g. Moutinho, 1987, Woodside and Lysonski, 1989, Um and Crompton, 1990), even though they do not provide much detail about the type of nature and form of that impact. Um and Crompton (1990) introduced an important advancement, suggesting that, in the first stages of formation of the consideration sets, people are more likely to be influenced by passive information acquisition, whereas in subsequent stages people are likely to undertake active information search. In a limited number of these models several information sources – e.g. advertising; worth-of-mouth recommendations; travel agent information, magazines, and newspapers - are specifically identified (e.g. Woodside and Lysonski, 1989; Moscardo *et al.*, 1996). To complement information provided by the destination choice models, empirical studies were examined.

Baloglu (2000) suggests people are likely to invest more effort in searching for information about destinations which they are more interested in visiting than about destinations they are less likely to visit. The number of information sources consulted was positively related to the intention to visit a destination. This study also suggests that when people are more interested in visiting a destination, they are more likely to search for professional advice (e.g. from travel agencies and air companies) and be aware of more advertisements, than when they are not so interested. In contrast, no significant relationship existed between the likelihood of visiting a destination and the use of other information sources such as worth-of-mouth and non-tourism books/movies/news.

Sönmez and Sirakaya (2002) reported that the use of social/personal communication channels positively contributed to the decision of the intention to travel to Turkey for their

next vacation. Promotion and advertising also influenced people to visit Cyprus, since potential visitors who attached more importance to the quality of promotion and advertising had a higher probability of revisiting Cyprus (Seddighi and Theocharous, 2002).

Botha *et al.* (1999) provided further empirical support indicating that people are likely to search for more information about destinations in the later stages of the destination choice process. Specifically, their survey showed that more effort was invested in looking for information on destinations on the late consideration set than on those only included in the early consideration set.

The existing research has been focused on the influence of information search on intention to visit destinations and little attention has been given to the impact of information search on formation of consideration sets.

In this thesis the objective was not restricted only to measuring the influence of strength of search on destination choice, but extended also to the **influence of the direction of information search in destination choice** (chapter 1, page 3, objective 5). Unfortunately, researchers have largely ignored this issue. Fakeye and Crompton (1991) were among the few authors who provided some insights into it when they advocated that induced images – those resulting from efforts made by marketers to promote destinations -, are more likely to develop when the people plan to travel. Um and Crompton (1990) also contended that passive information search is likely to have more impact in the first stages of the formation of the consideration sets, whereas active information search is likely to have a higher impact in the last stages. Although these authors provide some insight into the influence of the direction of search in the elaboration of consideration sets, in this thesis it is suggested that potential visitors not only search for more information, but also search for more specific information about destinations (e.g. type of accommodation available, characteristics of the rooms of the means of accommodation). Since information sources that are located at a destination (e.g. tourism offices, means of accommodation located at the destination) are likely to provide this kind of information, it is likely that potential

tourists will invest more effort in consulting these information sources at the final stages of the destination choice process than at the initial stages of this process.

The literature review showed there was a positive relationship between the strength of information search and intention to visit a destination, which suggests that people are likely to search for more information about destinations they are more interested in visiting. There is little research on the elaboration of consideration sets, but what there is suggests that potential visitors are likely to invest more effort in searching for information in the latter stages of this process than in the initial ones. The review suggests that active search and marketer-dominated sources tend to be used more in the latter stages of the elaboration of the consideration sets.

4.6. PERCEIVED DIFFERENCES AMONG DESTINATIONS IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF CONSIDERATION SETS

Fakeye and Crompton (1991) reported that people are likely to develop more complex images of destinations after visiting them or of having searched for information about them. As Ahmed (1996) contends, "people with a history of greater experience use are expected to perceive the availability of more specific rewards, while novices usually respond to more generalized images promoted by marketers" (p.41).

Crompton (1979) argued that people holding more complex images were more likely to have a differentiated perspective than these whose images are based on simple stereotyping. This statement highlights that one of the consequences of forming more complex images of destinations and of being able to identify more specific characteristics of destinations, is that people will have more ability to differentiate among destinations.

If it is assumed that people are likely to search for more information about destinations included in later consideration sets than about those included only in earlier sets (this issue was discussed in section 4.5.2.), then people will be likely to find more significant

differences between destinations of later consideration sets than between those included only in earlier sets.

Some studies (Bolfing, 1988; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990) revealed a higher number of significant differences between products with which people were more involved than with products they were less involved with. Again, this suggests that in the elaboration of consideration sets, people are likely to search for more information about destinations included in subsequent sets than about those not included (see section 4.5.2.).

Botha *et al.* (1999) confirmed that visitors are likely to find more differences between destinations of later consideration sets than between destinations included only in earlier consideration sets. Each of their respondents compared the destination visited (Sun Lost City) with two other destinations he(she) considered visiting – a highest competitor (the destination he(she) was most likely to visit if he(she) had not visited Sun/Lost) and a second highest competitor (the second destination he(she) was most likely to visit if he(she) had not visited Sun/Lost). It is assumed that the consideration set where the highest competitor is included is likely to have been formed later than the set where the second highest competitor is included. Destinations were compared using a bundle of items that were subsequently collapsed into four factors. The destinations that seemed to be most differentiated were the destination visited and the second highest competitor. The destination visited also differed considerably from the highest competitor. In contrast, the two competitors did not significantly differ.

This review suggests that people who get more information about destinations (either visiting the destination or searching information about it) and who are more involved with the destination, are more likely to perceive differences among destinations.

This section proceeds with reviews of the literature relating to differences between destinations in different consideration sets.

The two studies that have addressed this issue in tourism were those reported by Um and Crompton (1990, 1992). They specifically analysed the influence of facilitators – "the beliefs about a destination's attributes which help to satisfy a potential traveller's specific motives" (Um and Crompton, 1992, p.19) - and inhibitors – factors that may inhibit a decision to visit a destination – during the process of elaboration of consideration sets. A similar procedure was used in both studies. The attitude in relation to each destination was assessed by calculating the difference between the perceived facilitators and perceived inhibitors. Their 1990 study revealed that both facilitators and inhibitors played an important role in the choice of a destination to visit. The findings showed that, in the elaboration of the consideration sets, respondents had more positive attitudes towards destinations included in the subsequent set than towards those not included. In the 1992 study, Um and Crompton considered two stages of the process of elaboration of the consideration sets – the elaboration of the late evoked set from the early evoked set and the selection of a destination to visit from the late consideration set. At both stages, respondents were likely to perceive the destinations selected to be included in the subsequent set as having more facilitators and fewer inhibitors than those not included in the subsequent set. These two studies support the findings previously presented in sections 4.3.3. and 4.4.3. concerning the influence of structural constraints and perceptions about tourism destinations (including tourism attractions and facilities) in the choice of destinations.

The Um and Crompton's work (1992) also revealed that the perceived facilitators had more influence in the initial stages of the elaboration of the consideration sets whereas the perceived inhibitors had more influence in the final stages. Specifically, facilitators had a more relevant role in the selection of the late consideration set from the early evoked set, whereas the inhibitors were more important when selecting a destination to visit from the late consideration set.

Crawford *et al.* (1991) suggested that the three kinds of constraints proposed by Crawford and Godbey (1987) – intrapersonal, interpersonal and structural – were likely to be experienced sequentially by individuals. Thus, Crawford *et al.* (1991) proposed a

hierarchical model of constraints suggesting that the first constraints encountered would be the intrapersonal ones, and only when these were overcame would interpersonal constraints be experienced. This sequence continued with the need to overcome interpersonal barriers before encountering structural constraints. Leisure participation thus required the successful overcoming of all three kinds of constraints. This model is widely used in the leisure literature and has received empirical support (Raymore *et al.*, 1993). This model of constraints suggests that structural constraints are likely to have more impact in the later stages of the elaboration of consideration sets than in the initial stages. The hierarchical model posits that people are likely to first take into consideration intrapersonal constraints, which are likely to result from an assessment of the attractions destinations possess and the motivations they are able to satisfy. This suggests that motivations and attractions may have a higher impact at the initial stages of the formation of consideration sets, whereas other features such as the facilities of the destinations may have more impact in later stages of the decision process.

A summary of the main conclusions of this chapter is presented in the next section.

4.7. CONCLUSION

The literature reviewed in this chapter provided valuable insights into the type of influence that factors of interest in this study are likely to have on a destination's image. Several researchers reported that familiarity could influence perceptions people held about destinations. Empirical research confirmed the impact of number of previous visits and of geographical distance from the destination on perceptions about a destination. It was concluded that familiarity may have either a positive or a negative impact on a destination's image.

Strength of information search is likely to be positively related to the image people hold of destinations. There is much less research supporting the influence of information search on a destination's image than supporting the influence of familiarity. A limitation identified

among the studies that analysed the influence of information search was that usually they assessed information search using self-rated subjective measures. This thesis builds on the existing work by extending research in this area, and using more objective measures.

The literature suggested that people were likely to invest more effort in searching for information about destinations they are most interested in visiting. Consequently, people are likely to invest more effort searching for information in the latter stages of the formation of consideration sets than in the initial ones. Further, information sources located at the destinations most likely to be visited are more likely to be used in the latter stages of the elaboration of consideration sets than in the early stages.

The perceptions people have about a destination – concerning their ability to satisfy motivations, the destination's attractions and the destination's facilities - and the structural constraints people perceive when consider visiting destinations, are both likely to impact destination choice. People are likely to prefer destinations they perceive to be superior in terms of attractions, some facilities and/or in the ability to satisfy some motivations. In the process of elaboration of consideration sets, people would be likely to include in subsequent sets destinations that they perceived to be better, at least on some key attributes of the destination (attractions and facilities), and/or on some of the motivations the destination can satisfy.

There is an extensive literature relating to the inhibiting impact of structural constraints. It suggests that people are likely to prefer visiting destinations with lower constraints.

One of the main aims of this chapter was to analyse the influence of information search, structural constraints, perceptions of destinations concerning their ability to satisfy motivations, their attractions and their facilities in the positioning of destinations along the destination choice decision. The main limitations of the literature reviewed were:

- most studies confined the analysis to one single destination;
- many of them only assessed the relationship between these factors and the intention to visit one specific destination;

- even studies that encompassed more than one destination had the following limitations:
  - most assessed only the impact of factors in the formation of preferences for destinations and not in the real context of intent to visit some destinations rather than others;
  - many studies were based on hypothetical scenarios of destination choice;
  - few studies addressed the influence of these factors on elaboration of consideration sets;
  - those which did examine elaboration of consideration sets, did not explicitly explain how the different consideration sets were formed.

In terms of the number and type of differences among destinations in different consideration sets, the major conclusions were:

- People will be likely to find more differences between destinations in the last stages in the elaboration of the consideration sets than between those in the initial stages. Additionally, people are likely to find more differences between the destination they chose to visit and the destinations only included in the early consideration set, than between the destination they chose to visit and the other destinations included in the late consideration set. This last point leads us to conclude that, in the selection of a destination to visit, people are likely to begin with a more heterogeneous set of destinations and progressively tend to form more homogenous set of destinations.
- Structural constraints are likely to have more impact in the latter stages of formation of the consideration sets, whereas motivations and attractions are likely to have more impact in the initial stages. Consequently, in the early stages of the elaboration of the consideration sets people are likely to find more differences between destination concerning attractions and ability to satisfy motivations, whereas in the later stages they will be more likely to find differences relating to facilities and structural constraints.

The literature reviewed in this chapter provided insights about factors that are likely to be influential in influencing positioning of destinations during the process of destination choice. Given the important role of information search as a determinant of destinations' positioning, the next chapter focuses on the determinants of information search.

CHAPTER 5 – DETERMINANTS OF INFORMATION SEARCH RELATING TO DESTINATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

Conceptualisations of the strength of information search and direction of information search were presented in the previous chapter. The present chapter focuses on the determinants of strength of information search. Three determinants of search are addressed: familiarity with destination, involvement with destination and structural constraints to visiting the destination. The operationalization of involvement with the destination also is discussed.

5.2. DETERMINANTS OF INFORMATION SEARCH

The significant role of information search in the context of tourism, both in the destination selection process and on subsequent behaviour, has been noted on several models of tourism behaviour.

Fodness and Murray (1999) developed and validated a model which explained the impact that selected factors had on the selection of a specific search strategy and the influence of each search strategy on visitors' behaviour at a destination. They classified search strategies according to three characteristics: spatial features (internal or external); temporal features (ongoing or prepurchase); and operational features (contributory or decisive). Their model identified several antecedents of search:

- situational influences (nature of decision making and composition of travel party);
- product characteristics (purpose of trip and mode of travel);
- tourist characteristics (family life cycle and socio-economic status).

Search outcomes referred to length of stay at destinations; number of destinations and attractions visited; and travel expenditures.

Hyde's (2000) model considered involvement as being an important antecedent of information search. Validation of the model confirmed that involvement had a positive influence on search. In the original model, the main consequences of search prior to arrival at a destination were related to information search while at the destination.

Baloglu (2000) used a path-analytical model to explain the influence of both travel motivations and two features of information search – amount of search and the type of information sources used – on intention to visit a destination. Validation of the model showed that these three antecedents had some impact on several components of perceptions of the destination which influenced affective evaluations of the destinations. Both cognitive and affective evaluations were influential for determining intention to visit the destinations, with some components of motivation and information search also having a direct impact on intent to visit. The tourism behavioural models suggested by Um and Crompton (1990) and Fakeye and Crompton (1991) over a decade ago previously postulated the influence of information search on perceptions of destination. However, Baloglu's model (2000) extended their models by incorporating a second component of information search besides amount of search – the type of information sources used. The effects of both amount of search and type of information sources used on perceptions of destinations are explored in this thesis.

Similarly to Hyde (2000), King and Woodside (2001) developed a tourism model based on information search, which placed emphasis on the behavioural consequences of search adopted by visitors while on site. As the domain of that model goes beyond the focus of the hypotheses tested in this thesis, it is not reviewed further here.

The models suggested by Baloglu (2000) and King and Woodside (2001) addressed the potential consequences of information search, while those proposed by Fodness and Murray (1999) and Hyde (2000) already incorporated the determinants of search. These models showed multiple factors may influence information search. It was not possible to

test the influence of all these factors in this thesis which will only focus on the three following potential determinants of strength of search:

(i) involvement with a destination – previously incorporated in Hyde's (2000) model and, consequently, recognised as an important determinant of search;

(ii) structural constraints – situational variables were incorporated in the Fodness and Murray (1999) model but their model did not address structural constraints, so it was decided to examine the impact of these constraints in this thesis;

(iii) familiarity with a destination – this antecedent of search was not incorporated into any of the models previously reviewed, but given its influence on the formation of destination images it was decided to analyse its influence on information search.

In 1977, Newman (in Moore and Lehmann, 1980) presented an extensive list of antecedents of search, where both experience, structural constraints (e.g. urgency, financial pressure, special buying opportunities) and one facet of involvement – perceived risk - were considered as factors that influenced search. Soon after, Bettman (1979) distinguished factors that influence degree of search and direction of search. Bettman (1979) postulated that experience may influence the type of information sought, due to its influence on the level of knowledge consumers possess about a product. He also considered availability of information as a determinant of search, which may be related to geographical distance to the place at which a product will be consumed, with those near the place being more likely to have information about the product. According to Bettman (1979), this environmental feature was likely to influence the degree of search undertaken by consumers. Moore and Lehmann (1980) provided an extensive list of potential antecedents of search and assessed their influence in information search about health bread. They assessed the effect of features that may be related to some facets of involvement (e.g. perceived risks of making a bad choice), familiarity (e.g. experience) and structural constraints (e.g. financial pressure). In evaluating the influence of familiarity on search, they considered features such as information availability and usage rate of the product.

Punj and Staelin (1983) assessed the influence of multiple potential influentials of search when testing a model of consumer information search behaviour for new automobiles. For familiarity, they used measures similar to those adopted by other researchers such as the total number of purchases, but they also used the measure of time since last purchase. In 1986, Bloch *et al.* provided a framework for consumer information search, which distinguished the determinants of prepurchase search from those of ongoing search. They explicitly identified among determinants of the prepurchase search, involvement and situational factors. Additionally, these authors tested the influence of involvement in search, putting a focus on the effect of enduring involvement on ongoing search.

Beatty and Smith (1987) extended the assessment of the influence of involvement on search by evaluating the effect of both enduring and purchase involvement on external search for consumer electronic products (e.g. televisions, VCRs). Their literature review identified factors that influenced search, updating the work done by Moore and Lehmann (1980). Experience, involvement and situational factors were also considered in their review. Srinivasan and Ratchford (1991) empirically tested a model of external search for automobiles, building upon that of Punj and Staelin (1983). Similarly to Punj and Staelin (1983), Srinivasan and Ratchford (1991) tested the influence of familiarity on search, but they also assessed the effect of features related to involvement such as interest in the product and risk. In 1993, Ratchford and Srinivasan reported results from an empirical study on external search of automobiles in which they again tested the effect of experience. Some years later, Schmidt and Spreng (1996) built a model of consumer information search which included a comprehensive range of antecedents of search encompassing situational involvement, enduring involvement and a feature related to involvement - perceived risk. They also considered a potential indicator of financial constraints – the perceived financial sacrifice. Although these authors did not include experience in their model, they advocated that this could be related to subjective knowledge. More recently, Sundaram and Taylor (1998) empirically tested a model of external search in in-home shopping situations where the effects of purchase experience, perceived risk and involvement were assessed.

This literature review suggests that familiarity, involvement and structural constraints have already been recognized as important determinants of search in the consumer behaviour field. However, the models and studies of comprehensive sets of determinants of search have not been recognised in the tourism field. Additionally, it should be observed that although the three determinants were considered to be important antecedents of search in other fields other than tourism, the determinants were frequently operationalized in a completely different way to that previously suggested in this study (see sections 4.2.1. and 4.4.2. concerning the operationalization of familiarity and structural constraints; the operationalization of involvement will be discussed in section 5.2.2.1.).

In the next sections, research relating to these three determinants of search is reviewed in more detail, with the objective of obtaining further insights about their influence on information search.

5.2.1. The role of familiarity as a determinant of search and its influence in information search

It is challenging to draw conclusions about the impact of familiarity with a destination on information search based on **research on familiarity undertaken on fields outside tourism**. This is because most of this research focuses on familiarity with a product category. However, review of these studies does offer some guidance for this thesis. Moore and Lehman (1980) reported that the number of previous purchases of bread during their experiment was negatively related to external search. Srinivasan and Ratchford (1991) found that experience with cars, measured by the number of cars purchased in the last 10 years had a negative significant correlation with search effort (measured using a 6 item scale). In another study of cars, Kiel and Layton (1981) indicated the number of previous car purchases and tendency to repurchase from the same manufacturer were negatively related to an aggregate index of search. Similarly, purchasing experience in in-home shopping situations was revealed to have a negative significant relationship with external search (Sundaram and Taylor, 1998). These studies suggest that experience is one of the dimensions of familiarity shown to have a negative influence on strength of information.

Studies **in the tourism field** were also addressed. In a survey of visitors to Prince Edward Island in Canada (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002), those who had never visited this destination before were more likely to report having received visitor information guides before the trip and using them more heavily than those who had already visited the Island previously. Similarly, people who were visiting the Big Island of Hawaii for the first time were more likely to report having used the Big Island travel guide, than people who had visited this Island before (Woodside and King, 2001). These and other studies (Murray, 1991) suggest that people who had not visited a destination before, were likely to have sought more information about it than those who had previously visited it. However, in all these studies **familiarity** was **measured by previous visits to the destination**. Another mode of operationalizing familiarity is **geographical distance to the destination**.

Gitelson and Crompton (1983) reported that people travelling longer distances were likely to spend more time planning a trip and to consult more information sources. The request of visitor information guides before a trip to Prince Edward Island (Canada) and the level of use of these guides were positively related to the distance respondents lived from the Island (Woodside and Dubelaar, 2002). Gursoy (2002) found that familiarity had a negative relationship with external search, both in the case of personal sources and of destination specific sources (e.g. national government tourist offices, state city travel offices). At Clemson University, significant differences were noticed between international students and their academic counterparts regarding the use of travel agents for booking travel taken during Spring break or during the summer. International students were more likely to use a travel agent than their academic counterparts (Field, 1999). Thus, geographical distance seems to influence likelihood of investing in information search, with people living further away from a destination tending to invest most effort in looking for information about it.

None of the studies reviewed considered familiarity in the elaboration of consideration sets. There is no knowledge of the extent to which the influence of familiarity in information search is likely to change during the process of elaboration of consideration sets.

5.2.2. The role of involvement and structural constraints as determinants of search

5.2.2.1. Conceptualisation and operationalization of involvement with a destination

Some authors have suggested that involvement corresponded to "**perceived personal relevance**" of the object or situation for the consumer (Celsi and Olson, 1988). However, the lack of a consensual definition of involvement is manifested by the multiple conceptualizations of involvement that have been proposed. In a meta-analysis of involvement research, Broderick and Mueller (1999) identified the **involvement scales most frequently cited** in the literature. A brief description of these scales is provided in the following paragraphs. Subsequently, the involvement scales that have most frequently been adopted in a leisure and tourism context are identified, and an analysis of their main advantages and disadvantages is offered.

An early attempt to operationalize involvement was made by Lastovicka and Gardner in 1979 (Antil, 1984; Zaichkowsky, 1985). This scale was comprised of 22 items, which assessed three factors: familiarity, commitment and normative importance (Bearden *et al.*, 1999). In 1984, Traylor and Joseph created a smaller scale of involvement comprised of six items, in which involvement was identified as defining the extent to which a product reflected the type of person the consumer was. This scale seems to capture, essentially, the sign facet of involvement.

In 1984, Antil also called attention to the importance of developing a measure of involvement that may be applied in all situations and of considering two specific characteristics of involvement in its operationalization – continuum and situation specific. In the same year, Rothschild appealed for "less theorizing and more empirical research on involvement" and, in the following year, three papers proposing different ways of operationalizing involvement emerged, written by Slama and Tashian (1985); Zaichkowsky (1985); and Laurent and Kapferer (1985).

The scale provided by Slama and Tashian (1985) was specifically designed to measure purchasing involvement. This unidimensional scale was comprised of 33 items.

Zaichkowsky's (1985) unidimensional scale had 20 items, which made it easier to apply than that of Slama and Tashian. Her semantic differential scale was called the Personal Involvement Inventory (PII), and was considered appropriate for measuring product involvement (Zaichkowsky, 1985; Sheth *et al.*, 1999), but Zaichkowsky (1985) claimed it may also be adopted for assessing involvement with advertisements and with purchase decisions.

In contrast to Zaichkowsky (1985), Laurent and Kapferer (1985) proposed a multifaceted scale of involvement. Stating that there are several antecedents of involvement, these authors created a scale which evaluated the level and nature of involvement based on four facets:

- perceived importance of the product and the perceived importance of the consequences of a mispurchase (risk associated with the importance of negative consequences of a mispurchase);
- subjective probability of a mispurchase (risk associated with probability of a mispurchase);
- hedonic value of the product class;
- perceived sign value of the product class.

Although these four facets corresponded to the four factors that emerged in the Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) work, "perceived importance of the product" and "perceived importance of the consequences of a mispurchase" may be different dimensions of involvement. This scale is termed the Consumer Involvement Profile (CIP) scale (Havitz and Dimanche, 1997). The authors of the scale argued that measurement of involvement should include multiple facets of involvement, because they found that different facets exhibited different influences on specific aspects of consumer behaviour (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). There is some correlation among the facets, but some of them correlate more strongly than others. Risk probability was the facet of involvement that was less correlated with the other involvement facets. The lower correlation among some components makes it likely that

individuals may be high on some facets of involvement and low on others (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985).

Since 1985, much of the work related to the operationalization of involvement has been based on the measures developed at that time. Thus, McQuarie and Munson (1987, 1992) created several new versions of Zaichkowsky's (1985) PII scale, attempting to incorporate the multifaceted approach of Laurent and Kapferer (1985). The Revised Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII) (McQuarie and Munson, 1987) developed the original Zaichkowsky scale (1985) by deleting four pairs of adjectives that were considered inappropriate for non-college-educated populations and, subsequently, adding new item pairs that represented facets not encompassed by the PII scale, such as decision risk and sign[1]. Several analyses were performed using this set of items and three factors consistently emerged. Hence, the RPII scale, that comprised 14 pairs of items, appears to incorporate three facets of involvement: (i) importance; (ii) pleasure (which incorporates items related to both hedonic and sign facets); and (iii) risk (McQuarie and Munson, 1987). A few years later, McQuarrie and Munson (1992) created a shortened version of the PII comprising only 10 items. This scale incorporates only two facets of involvement – perceived importance and interest (McQuarrie and Munson, 1992).

In 1988, Higie and Feick (1989) build upon the work of Zaichkowsky (1985) and McQuarrie and Munson (1992) to create a scale for measuring enduring involvement. This scale, was named the enduring involvement scale (EIS) and consisted of two factors that reflected the hedonic and the sign facets of involvement. Each of the factors was represented in the scale by a set of five items.

Two short scales of involvement also emerged in the late eighties. The scale proposed by Mittal (1989) – the purchase decision involvement scale (PDI) -, consisted of only four items, and was specially designed to measure purchase involvement. The scale created by Ratchford (1987), also called the FCBI (Foote, Cone, and Belding Involvement), since it resulted from work developed by Foote, Cone, and Belding (FCB), also has the advantage

[1] Some authors (e.g. Bearden *et al.*, 1999) also refer to the version of the Zaichkowsky scale (1985) that resulted from deleting the four items that were considered inappropriate to use with non-college educated populations (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987), as a new version of PII.

of being short, encompassing only three items. This scale was developed to identify the location of several products on the FCB grid (Ratchford, 1987), which classifies purchase decisions into four types, according to "level of involvement" and "level of thinking and feeling" associated with the purchase. Both scales - those of Ratchford (1987) and Mittal (1989) - assess both the importance of the purchase and the importance of the outcomes of the purchase, features that correspond to the facet of the Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) that refers to the importance of the product and to the consequences of a mispurchase - also called "imporisk". Ratchford (1987) provided some evidence of the existence of a correlation between his scale's score and the score provided by the imporisk facet.

Jain and Srinivasan (1990), created a multifaceted scale of involvement, based on items derived from several of the scales previously mentioned[2]. This scale was named the new involvement profile (NIP), and was comprised of five factors, very similar to those of Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985). The only difference was that the factors referring to importance and risk importance did not merge on the same dimension of involvement. Each of the facets of involvement was represented in the scale by two to four items, with the scale comprising a total of 15 items.

This review confirms that a wide variety of operationalizations of involvement have been suggested in fields other than tourism. This partly results from the lack of consensual definitions of involvement with authors recognising the existence of different types of involvement. The facets of involvement identified by Laurent and Kapferer (1985) seem to represent a majority of the facets most frequently mentioned in the literature.

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) provided a review of **involvement** research undertaken **in the leisure and tourism fields** between 1988 and 1997, in which one of the objectives was to identify the scales used in those studies. This review showed that the involvement scales most frequently used were those of Zaichkowsky (1985) and Laurent and Kapferer (1985). The central role of these scales was corroborated by other studies not reviewed by Havitz and Dimanche (1997). For example, Goldsmith and Litvin (1999) used PII. Dimanche *et*

[2] This group of items included items from PII, CIP, RPII (McQuarrie and Munson, 1987), FCBI and EIS.

al. (1991), who first adapted a version of the Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) to the leisure and tourism fields, seem to have been crucial to the dissemination of the multifaceted scale in these fields.

Havitz and Dimanche (1997) highlighted the importance of PII and CIP in leisure and tourism, noting that two involvement scales which also were frequently adopted in this context derived from them – the Watkin's scale - (developed in 1987) derived from CIP, and the McQuarrie and Munson scale (1987), derived from the PII. According to the Havitz and Dimanche (1997) review, another scale with an important role in this context was created by Bloch *et al.* (1986). That scale is comprised of three items which relate to "product interest, time spent thinking about the product, and average importance of the product to the performance of several social and career roles" (Bloch *et al.*, 1986, p.123).

All the scales purport to be generic scales of involvement that may be applied in any context. However, in 1996 Ragheb created a multifaceted scale specifically designed to measure Leisure and Recreation Involvement (LRI) (Havitz and Dimanche, 1997).

In addition to the multiple involvement scales available, some in the leisure and tourism field have created their own scales, sometimes adapting the original involvement scales to the product categories they were researching such as gambling (Jang *et al.*, 2000) and skiing (Perdue, 2001), or to specific countries such as Australia (Harrison-Hill, 2001).

The literature previously reviewed, including both the literature on the tourism field and on the other fields, indicates that the involvement scales which have been used most frequently in the leisure and tourism fields, and the most cited scales in the literature (Broderick and Mueller, 1999), are those of Zaichkowsky (1985), Laurent and Kapferer (1985), and McQuarrie and Munson's scale (1987), that was derived from the previous two. Zaichkowsky's scale (1985) demonstrated content validity, criterion-related validity, and reliability and stability over time. It was tested for construct validity and reasonable results were reported (Zaichkowsky, 1985). Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) has been shown to have internal consistency, discriminant validity and construct validity. The factor of Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) with the lowest reliability was the risk facet

corresponding to the probability of making a mispurchase (Laurent and Kapferer, 1985). The RPII, provided by McQuarrie and Munson (1987), has been shown to have both internal consistency and construct validity.

Many researchers have incorporated a multifaceted approach to measuring involvement (e.g. Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; McQuarrie and Munson, 1987 and 1992; Jain and Srinivasan, 1990). Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) seems to have been the basis for other multifaceted scales that were developed to measure involvement, which suggests that this scale offers useful insights into the way involvement should be measured. However, some researchers have criticized it. One criticism was that it is not compatible with the PII scale, since PII measures involvement, whereas Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) also assesses some antecedents of involvement (Ratchford, 1987; Mittal, 1989; Zaichkowsky, 1993 in Yavas and Babakus, 1995). The main argument seems to be that only the importance facet of Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) is really measuring involvement (Ratchford, 1987; Mittal, 1989). Hence, Ratchford (1987) provided evidence that the score obtained with his scale had a higher correlation with the importance facet of Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) than with any other facet of this scale. However, Ratchford (1987) advises that caution should be exercised in evaluating these results because of the small number of cases considered in analysis. The work of Ratchford (1987) also provided strong evidence that the level of feeling associated with purchases, which is likely to be high in services related to the tourism field, is positively correlated with both the sign and pleasure facets of involvement. Additionally, in several studies undertaken in the tourism field, PII has shown some correlation with the importance/pleasure (hedonic) facet of CIP (Jamrozy *et al.*, 1996; Kim *et al.*, 1997) and with the sign facet of CIP (Jamrozy *et al.*, 1996). This suggests that in the tourism field, other facets of the Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) besides that of perceived importance, may be appropriate for measuring involvement.

It seems likely that multifaceted scales such as the CIP, may be of greater value than unidimensional scales, because they enable the specific influence of different components of involvement on behaviour to be analyzed. However, multifaceted scales with a higher number of facets may be more difficult to operationalize than unidimendional scales, due to the relatively large number of items needed to measure those facets. The literature here

reviewed suggests that when a decision has to be made as to whether or not to adopt a multifaceted scale to measure involvement, it may be advisable to carry out prior analyses in order to identify the facets of involvement that are appropriate to assess involvement in that field. This process should help to develop scales that do not contain a large number of items and that could be relatively easily used by respondents to surveys.

After having discussed conceptualisation and operationalization, the next section draws attention to the influence of involvement and structural constraints on strength of search.

5.2.2.2. The influence of involvement and structural constraints in information search

Among the earliest empirical studies examining the relationship between the construct of **involvement** and search, were the authors of two widely cited involvement scales - Zaichkowsky (1985) and Laurent and Kapferer (1985). Besides creating a scale, Zaichkowsky (1985) showed that involvement exercised a significant influence on consumer behaviour, including increasing interest in reading information about a product and reading consumer reports. Laurent and Kapferer (1985) partially supported this relationship, revealing a positive impact of some facets of involvement on features related to information search such as: being consistently informed; interest in articles and TV programs; and looking at advertising. Although the empirical findings of these authors partially supported the relationship previously found, they also revealed that the impact of different facets of involvement on search may differ. This feature is addressed in more detail later in this section.

Some insights about the relationship between involvement and information search also derived from the Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion developed by Petty and Cacioppo (1986). In the context of this model, these researchers suggested that the more involved consumers become, the more motivated they are to process issue-relevant arguments presented in communications used to promote the products. Although this theory refers to information processing, findings of this research also seem to offer insights into the search process. Hence, if some level of involvement is needed to process the

information obtained, then some involvement is also likely to be needed for individuals to invest in information searching.

Bloch *et al.* (1986), with an empirical study on the purchase of clothes and personal computers, also contributed to the notion that involvement had a positive impact on search. They postulated that different kinds of involvement had different effects on search, suggesting that whereas enduring involvement had greater impact on ongoing search, purchase involvement had greater impact on prepurchase search. However, their study focused on ongoing search and the findings were restricted to the role of enduring involvement in this kind of search.

In Beatty and Smith's review (1987) on antecedents of search, two factors associated with facets of involvement were identified as likely to have a positive influence in search – the importance of the product and the risk associated with its purchase. Findings from these studies indicated that the higher is the importance that consumers assign to products and the risk they associate with their purchase, the more effort they are likely to invest in searching for information about a product. Beatty and Smith (1987), after analyzing the literature on the antecedents of search, conducted an empirical study with several products including VCRs, televisions and computers, which revealed that different kinds of involvement may have different impacts on the amount of search. They reported that whereas enduring involvement did not have a significant impact on search, purchase involvement was the strongest contributor to search. The explanation for this kind of result may be associated with Bloch *et al.*'s perspective (1986) that prepurchase search is more likely to be related to involvement in the purchase, whereas ongoing search is more likely to be influenced by enduring involvement.

Richins and Bloch (1986) revealed another important feature of involvement, suggesting that whereas enduring involvement and purchase involvement had similar behaviour outcomes, the temporal dimension of these outcomes seemed to be different. In their study, behaviours associated with enduring involvement were shown to be stable over time, while behaviours associated with purchase involvement were likely to decline after the purchase.

In the 1990s, others (McQuarrie and Munson, 1992; Schmidt and Spreng, 1996; Moorthy *et al.*, 1997; Dholakia, 1998), including the authors of alternate involvement scales (e.g. McQuarrie and Munson, 1992), corroborated the positive relationship between involvement and search.

Schmidt and Spreng (1996) postulated that both enduring and situational involvement had a positive impact on search. Although they did not empirically test their model, subsequent studies analyzed the effects of these two kinds of involvement (e.g. Dholakia, 1998) and supported their hypothesis.

More recent studies (Sundaram and Taylor, 1998; Lee *et al.*, 1999) have introduced the possibility that the effect of involvement on search is influenced by the knowledge that consumers possess about a product category. Sundaram and Taylor (1998), in their work on in-home shopping situations, reported that involvement did not have a significant influence on search, but it had a positive impact on knowledge which, consequently, contributed to search. The research conducted by Lee *et al.* (1999) showed that involvement only contributed to search effort when the potential consumers had low prior knowledge about the product category.

The literature analysed to this point is consistent in suggesting that in fields other than tourism, involvement is likely to have a positive impact on search, even though it is recognised that different kinds of involvement may have different levels of impact on search. In addition to the construct of involvement as a whole, findings have been reported relating to specific facets of involvement.

Some have considered the risk facet of involvement. The risks most frequently associated with the purchase of products are: financial, social and psychological (Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997; Sheth *et al.*, 1999). However, consumers may also perceive other kinds of risks such as those associated with performance and obsolescence (Sheth *et al.*, 1999). There is broad consensus that the greater the perception of risk associated with a purchase, the more motivated consumers will be to search for information (Bauer, 1960 in Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997; Schiffman and Kanuk, 2000). Murray (1991) provided empirical evidence

of this relationship in a study of information search in services. Some years later, Sundaram and Taylor's (1998) corroborated these findings.

Although there has been strong support for the positive impact of risk on search, some research shows that care should be taken in drawing conclusions about this relationship. Gemünden (1985) did a meta-analysis of studies that analyzed the influence of risk on search. Although a positive relationship between risk and search was reported in 49% of the 100 analyses considered in the study, the relationship was not found in 51% of the studies. These findings do not mean that risk does not have an impact in information search, but revealed that this relationship is influenced by multiple factors - task-complexity, validity of risk measurement (measuring risk versus not measuring risk, measurement testing or falsified results of tests) – and by the methodology adopted for risk measurement. Concerning this last feature, there was more support for the existence of a positive relationship between perceived risks and information search in cases where risks were experimentally induced, than when risks were recalled. Gemünden (1985) also concluded that, for complex goods, information search is only one among several possible risk-reduction strategies.

One of the most important benefits of search is the reduction of uncertainty (Sundaram and Taylor, 1998) and there is some empirical evidence (Urbany, 1986) that uncertainty is positively related to search. However, when trying to examine how uncertainty affects search, Urbany *et al.* (1989) found that two kinds of uncertainty had opposite effects on search. Choice uncertainty (uncertainty about which brand to choose; which model to choose; which store to shop) increased search, whereas knowledge uncertainty (uncertainty about the features that were available; the performance of the different brands and models; and the most important considerations to be used in making the purchase choice) decreased it. This indicates that some types of uncertainty, such as knowledge uncertainty, may not be addressed through information search due to costs associated with the difficulty in finding new information in these cases.

Research that focused on specific features related to facets of involvement provided some support for the existence of a positive relationship between involvement and search, but it

also revealed that this effect, at least in the case of the risk facets of involvement, may be dependent on particular factors (e.g. process used to measure risk).

In order to analyse whether the impact of involvement on information search was associated with product categories, several studies that assessed the impact of involvement in different product categories were analysed. In McQuarrie and Munson's study (1992), where the effectiveness of RPII in predicting information search and processing was assessed, the "importance" facet was more significant for some products (e.g. laundry detergent, headache remedy), while the "interest" facet was more effective for other products (e.g. jeans, breakfast cereal). The conclusion that effectiveness of involvement components in predicting information search varies across product categories can also be extended to services. In a study which focused on a tourism service – a vacation in the Caribbean - (McColl-Kennedy and Fetter, 2001), while facets of RPII were almost equally significant predicting the usage of information sources, interest seemed to have a higher impact on search effort than importance. Thus, the studies reviewed have suggested that different components of involvement may have different levels of impact on information search, and that these effects may differ across products.

The conclusion that the impact of involvement on search may differ across facets of involvement extends to studies that adopted multifaceted scales other than the RPII, such as those of Laurent and Kapferer (1985). In their research, the risk facet representing the probability of a mispurchase was the facet of involvement with the least impact on search.

In a **tourism context**, Havitz and Dimanche (1999) did an extensive review of the findings on involvement in the tourism and leisure fields. They analyzed 52 leisure involvement data sets based on 13 propositions that they had developed at the beginning of the 1990s (Havitz and Dimanche, 1990). One of their propositions that received strong support postulates that a positive relationship existed between involvement and search. This proposition received support from studies developed in different leisure and tourism contexts such as tennis and tennis equipment (Celsi and Olson, 1988) and recreation anglers (Perdue, 1993).

These findings from Havitz and Dimanche's (1999) review were corroborated by more recent studies conducted by Hyde (2000) and Goldsmith and Litvin (1999). Both studies referred to travellers to vacation destinations, with the first study specifically focusing on travelling to New Zealand. In the later study, involvement with vacation travel destinations was positively associated with the use of travel agents.

None of the studies reviewed by Havitz and Dimanche (1999) pointed to the existence of a negative relationship between involvement and search. However, some studies they considered, provided only partial support to a positive relationship between these two constructs. These studies were developed in a wide variety of contexts: participation in fitness; vacations to the mid-western part of the United States; municipal recreation programs; and birdwatching. Several reasons were suggested for these studies having only partially supported the proposition being considered in this section (Havitz and Dimanche, 1999):

(i) High involved subjects were similar to low involved subjects in certain behaviours, such as number of magazines read (Jamrozy *et al.*, 1996)[3].

(ii) Sometimes, high involved respondents were not significantly different from low involved ones in the importance they assigned to several information sources.

(iii) Another cause of partial support was that three kinds of information needs (functional, innovation, and hedonic) were revealed to be more significant predictors of information search than involvement; however, as Havitz and Dimanche (1990) note, some of these information needs are related to facets of involvement.

(iv) Finally, partial support for the proposition is related to the finding that only some facets of involvement have a significant positive effect on search (Kim *et al.*, 1997). When Kim *et al.* (1997) measured involvement with Zaichkowsky's scale (1985) it was positively related to search, but when they assessed it with Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985), only the importance/pleasure facet of involvement had a significant positive influence on search, with neither risk nor sign having a significant relationship with search. Similar results were reported

[3] In this study the relationship between involvement and information search was measured indirectly, taking into account the association between these two constructs and opinion leadership.

by Jamrozy *et al.* (1996). Although Jamrozy *et al.* (1996) did not evaluate the impact of involvement on search, their study offers insights into this phenomenon. They analyzed the relationship between opinion leadership and search, and, subsequently, the relationship between opinion leadership and involvement. Opinion leaders used more information sources, and opinion leadership was positively related with some involvement measures – the importance/pleasure facet of Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) and Zaichkowsky's scale (1985). However, there were no significant relationships between opinion leadership and sign, or with either risk facets of involvement (measured with Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985)). These two latter studies seem to indicate that the construct of involvement as measured by Zaichkowsky's scale (1985) and the importance and pleasure facets of involvement from Laurent and Kapferer's scale (1985) are stronger predictors of search than the risk or sign features (the remaining facets of Laurent and Kapferer's involvement scale). The sign facet may not be a very good predictor of search among venturers (Plog, 2001) - who prefer to visit unfamiliar and unusual destinations, with which they do not obligatorily completely identify, but about which they search for information.

In addition to the studies reviewed by Havitz and Dimanche (1999), other studies were reviewed on the influence of involvement in search. An example is that of McColl-Kennedy and Fetter (2001), which evaluates the influence of involvement in the information search process in the context of a vacation in the Caribbean. Involvement was measured with the RPII scale whereas search was assessed with McColl-Kennedy and Fetter's scale incorporating two components of search – source of search (kind of sources used) and search effort (effort invested in search activity). While both components of involvement had a positive influence on source of search, only the interest facet of involvement was positively associated with search effort. This means that whereas involvement had an influence in determining the kind of information sources that would be used, only interest seemed to determine the extent of effort invested in information acquisition. This study provided partial support for the existence of a positive impact of

involvement in information search, and also pointed to a discrimination between the influence of different facets of involvement in search.

Snepenger and Snepenger (1993) postulated that information search strategy differs according to type of decision-making behaviour, being more extensive in vacations that involve high levels of risk. Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) created a model which identified multiple factors that may influence search in tourism and recreational contexts. Although involvement itself was not considered in their model, facets of it were encompassed in the model. Uncertainty arises as a functional need that may lead to information search. Although Vogt and Fesenmaier (1998) noted that different kinds of uncertainty may have different influences on behaviour (referring to findings of Urbany *et al.*, 1989), they stated that consumers usually acquire information in order to reduce risk. Their model supported the notion that risk may have a positive impact on search, when it noted that information search may assume an important role as a reduction risk strategy.

Mitchell *et al.*'s research (1999) concluded that several perceived risks significantly influenced the adoption of some specific risk reduction strategies related to information search. Several authors (e.g. Jang *et al.*, 2000) advocate the importance of continuing to examine the relationship between risk and search.

The literature reviewed in this section suggests there is strong support for the existence of a positive influence by level of involvement on strength of information search. However, this relationship may differ according to type of involvement and the facets of involvement being considered:

(i) different kinds of involvement seem to have different effects on search, with enduring involvement especially affecting ongoing search, and purchase involvement having higher impact in prepurchase search;

(ii) the effects of enduring and purchase involvement appear to have different temporal dimensions with those of enduring involvement being more stable over time, while those of purchase involvement vary across time, being higher in periods where purchases occur;

(iii) the impact of involvement on search may differ across facets of involvement. In tourism and leisure contexts, the importance and pleasure facets of involvement seem to be the facets that have a higher impact on search.

In this thesis, the objective is to assess the influence of involvement on prepurchase search. Although the literature review indicates that there is likely to be a positive relationship between these constructs, it also points out the importance of measuring the involvement that potential tourists had in a prepurchase stage. This was found to be the most influential type of involvement in prepurchase search, although it appears to decrease over time. The review suggests that in cases where multifaceted scales of involvement are used, different facets of involvement are likely to have a different influence on prepurchase search.

The potential **effect of constraints on search** has been largely overlooked by researchers in the field of tourism. It seems likely that people anticipate more risks when they feel more constrained to visit a destination. Much of the research on determinants of search corroborates the existence of a positive influence of risk on search behaviour. Hence, individuals perceiving more risks are more likely to search for more information about destinations. Those who are more constrained in relation to destinations may either give up intent to visit a destination, or invest in searching for more information about the destination, recognizing the potential risk-reducing role of information search.

Although constraints are considered to be potential inhibitors of the participation in some activities, the concept of constraints changed in the 1990s. In the early 1990s the prevailing perspective was that constraints corresponded to insurmountable barriers which prevented participation in leisure activity. This was subsequently replaced by a perspective that recognized the possibility of negotiating constraints. Jackson *et al.* (1993) explicitly advocated that constraints should not be viewed as insurmountable barriers, and suggested the possibility of negotiating constraints. Participation in leisure activities then becomes dependent on the successful negotiation of constraints. A potential result of the negotiation of constraints is the participation in leisure activities in a modified way (Jackson *et al.*, 1993). Jackson *et al.* (1993) posited that the initiation and outcome of constraints negotiation is a result of the relative strength and interaction between constraints and

motivations. This revised perspective of the role of constraints (Jackson *et al.*, 1993), was subsequently extended to the tourism field. For example, in the context of museum visitation, Davies and Prentice (1995) noticed the importance of latent demand (those who desire to engage in a specific activity but do not do so), which results, at least partially, from the outcome of the interaction between motivations and constraints being a failure to negotiate constraints.

It is important to consider that individuals are likely to exhibit a hierarchy of importance among constraints (see section 4.6.). Consequently, the lack of engagement in an activity may result, not only from an inability to negotiate intrapersonal constraints, but also from anticipation of other kinds of constraints (e.g. interpersonal or structural constraints) or from an inability to negotiate them (Jackson *et al.*, 1993). In one study carried out in the field of tourism (Gilbert and Hudson, 2000), anticipated structural constraints seemed to be related to intrapersonal constraints, since both kinds of constraints were incorporated in the same factor in a factor analysis.

The literature here reviewed referring to constraints' negotiation, shows that information search may be a strategy of constraints' negotiation for people who are motivated to negotiate them.

One of the major limitations of studies reviewed in this section is that none of them addressed the influence of structural constraints and involvement in information search on elaboration of consideration sets, i.e. whether they change across the several stages of this process. It seems likely that the more constraints people feel in relation to destinations they visit, the more information they are likely to search for about them, so structural constraints are likely to have a positive impact on search. In the case of destinations not chosen as a destination to visit - destinations that were only included in the early or late consideration sets – it is uncertain whether there will be a positive or a negative relationship between structural constraints and strength of information search since people are likely to perceive more risks in relation to these destinations than in relation to the destination visited. These circumstances may lead to situations where some respondents try to negotiate constraints through search leading to a positive relationship between structural

constraints and strength of search; whereas other respondents perceive such strong constraints that they will gave up the idea of visiting this destination and will not search for information about it, resulting in a negative relationship between structural constraints and strength of search.

5.3. CONCLUSION

This chapter offers insights about the influence of familiarity, involvement and structural constraints in strength of information search about destinations. It is difficult to draw conclusions about the potential impact of familiarity with a destination on search based on the literature of other fields besides tourism since such studies focus on familiarity with a product category, rather than on familiarity with a specific product from the category. The research carried out in tourism destinations provided strong support for the existence of a negative relationship between familiarity with a destination and strength of search of information about destinations. Hence, potential visitors who lived further away from the destinations, who had never visited the destinations, or who consider themselves to be less familiar with the destinations, are likely to invest more effort in searching for information about destinations than those who are more familiar with the destination, either because they have visited it previously, they live nearer to it or, simply, because they consider themselves to be more familiar with it.

The influence of structural constraints in information search has been largely overlooked by tourism researchers. However, the literature on the impact of involvement on search seems to provide some clues about the potential influence of constraints on search. Hence, if it is assumed that the people who feel more constrained are more likely to anticipate risks while engaging in a purchase, then the impact of the risk components of involvement on search may provide some insights about the influence of structural constraints on search. Information search seems to be a risk-reducing strategy. Thus, although some external factors may influence the relationship between risk and search, people who feel more constrained in relation to a purchase may be likely to invest more effort in information search. However, the relationship between these constructs should be analysed

carefully, because if the risks reach a high level they may inhibit people from participating in tourism and, thus, lead to situations where no search is undertaken.

Considerable support was found for the existence of a positive influence of involvement in search. That is, those more involved with a destination are more likely to search information about that destination. It was also found that several dimensions of involvement were likely to have a different influence on information search. It was concluded that in the tourism field the importance and pleasure facets of involvement are the dimensions that have most impact on information search.

Although the literature reviewed in this chapter provides useful insights about the influence of some factors on information search, the majority of the studies only provide measures of the aggregate search effort undertaken by consumers to obtain information about all the alternate products they considered buying. This situation makes it difficult to examine whether consumers invest more effort for obtaining information about products from specific consideration sets. Hence, one of the limitations of the studies analysed is that they do not address the process of elaboration of consideration sets. Additionally, it is difficult to determine whether the impact of the determinants of information search is likely to change across the process of elaboration of the consideration sets. After the literature reviewed it was considered that, in the context of tourism, constraints may either have a positive or a negative impact on strength of search, given that they may lead to information search about a destination if people are highly motivated to visit it or, in alternative, they may inhibit information search when people feel highly constrained to visit a destination. Consequently, this situation leads us to contend that it is very difficult to determine, in the case of destinations not chosen to be visited, the type of influence that the structural constraints will be likely to have in information search. However, in the case of the destinations that people decided to visit, it is suggested that structural constraints are likely to have a positive influence in strength of search.

In the two last chapters, literature was reviewed on the determinants of destinations' positioning across destination choice and on the determinants of information search. In the

next chapter, a new destination choice model, which incorporates insights from the literature reviewed is presented.

PART II – METHODOLOGY OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER 6 – A PROPOSED REVISED MODEL OF DESTINATION CHOICE

6.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 provided a review of prominent destination selection models in the tourism literature. This review identified the major contributions and limitations of these models. Their limitations included not explicitly incorporating positioning of destinations and failing to identify the influence of some factors in positioning destinations through the process of destination choice. Literature reviewed in chapters 4 and 5 provided some insights into the potential influence of determinants of positioning across the destination choice process and relationships among these determinants. A purpose of the present thesis is to propose a new destination selection model which extends those reviewed in the chapter 3 by incorporating insights from the literature reviewed in the last three chapters.

In the first part of this chapter, the proposed model is described, while in the second part of the chapter an explanation of how this model extends previous models is given. The chapter ends with an explicit identification of hypotheses that emerge from the proposed model, some of which are tested in this thesis.

6.2. A REVISED DESTINATION SELECTION MODEL

6.2.1. Description of the model

The model described here is intended to extend those reviewed in the chapter 3 by overcoming the limitations identified in that review, which included:

- failure to identify the way tourists evaluate destinations as the selection process progresses across different stages;

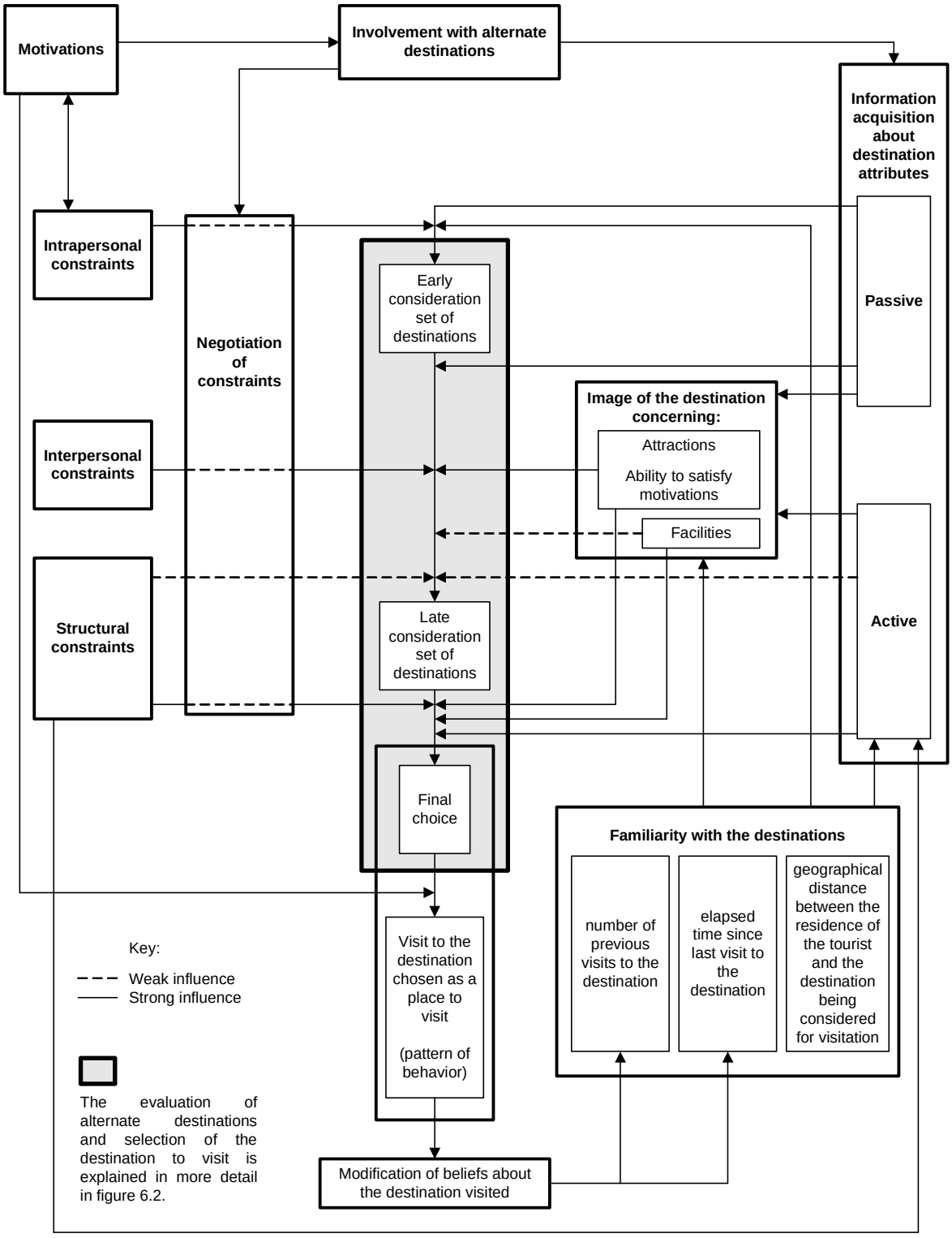
- failing to identify the influence of particular variables on the evolution of choice sets at different stages of the destination choice process;
- lack of attention to the effect of information search effort and of direction of search in the evolution of choice sets;
- disregarding potential interactions between variables that influence destinations' selection and of changes in those variables' impacts across the different stages of selection process;
- failure to explicitly incorporate the concept of positioning of destinations into the decision process;
- and, in some models, failure to recognize changes in destinations' positioning as a result of having visited them.

The model emerged from the literature review carried out in the three previous chapters. In addition, the model incorporates guidelines provided by the empirical studies on positioning of destinations which were reviewed in chapter 2. It attempts to overcome a primary limitation of many of these studies, in that a majority of them did not use real destination choice situations and did not take into consideration the process of elaboration of the consideration sets.

The model proposed in this thesis is represented in figure 6.1. Its main purpose is to illustrate destination choice process in the context of pleasure trips, using a choice sets' development approach. It incorporates a perspective on how the position of potential tourism destinations is modified during the process of selecting a destination and also shows that this position may change after a visit has been made to it. This model refers to the role of tourists' motivations in changes in a destination's position. Tourists' motivations are likely to influence tourists' level of involvement with each destination, that is, the level of perceived personal importance and/or interest evoked by a destination when choosing a place to visit for a vacation. Tourists are likely to have a higher level of involvement with destinations which they perceive are able to satisfy their motivations than with those that they perceive are not able to satisfy those motivations. Level of

involvement with a destination is likely to influence information acquisition and the impact of constraints.

Figure 6.1. – The destination choice model proposed – a general perspective



The destination selection process begins with a set of needs or motivations that people believe may be satisfied by a pleasure trip. Intrapersonal constraints (e.g. stress, religiosity, and perceived self-skill) are likely to be considered at this initial stage, and, consequently, there is interaction between them and the motivations. Awareness of these intrapersonal constraints is likely to weaken the impetus associated with a tourist's motivations. However, if the motivations are sufficiently strong, then individuals will negotiate away the constraints.

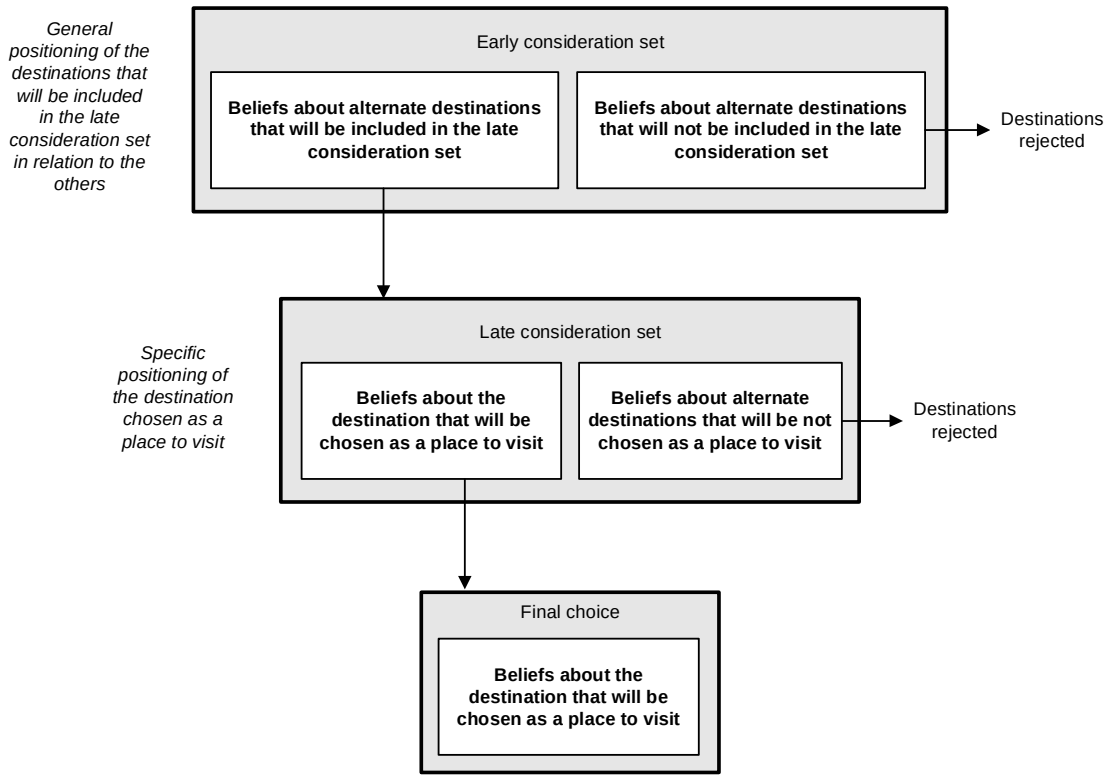
Once tourists have developed a threshold level of involvement with a set of destinations, they begin to acquire information about them. Existing information they have in their minds is reviewed and used to identify an initial set of potential destinations. At the early stages of the decision process most information about destinations is likely to be acquired passively. However, during the later stages of the process tourists actively search for information to complement that which has been passively acquired. In the final stage, when a single destination has to be selected, active search is likely to be intensified and may involve contacting a destination's marketers or their representatives. Hence, the search effort for obtaining information from information sources located at the destinations considered to be visited is likely to be intensified at the later stages of the decision process.

The search effort spent for acquiring information about a destination is likely to be influenced by the level of involvement with a destination, and by the level of familiarity with it. Familiarity is represented in the model by the experience tourists have had with the destination – number of previous visits made to the destination; elapsed time since the last visit to the destination; and the geographical distance between the residence of the tourist and the destination being considered for visitation. In the context of tourism, the dimensions of involvement that are likely to have most significant and positive impact on search are the importance and pleasure dimensions. Therefore, the more pleasure people feel and the more importance they assign to a visit to a destination, the more effort they are likely to invest in searching for information about that destination. Visitors are likely to spend more search effort in acquiring information about destinations with which they have

higher involvement and lower familiarity. The effort invested in searching for information about destinations is also likely to be influenced by structural constraints. In the case of destinations that people select as a destination to visit at the end of the process of elaboration of consideration sets – destinations that people are very interested in visiting – the constraints are likely to lead to more information search. In the case of destinations not chosen as a destination to visit – those only included in the early or late consideration sets (the formation of these sets is explained later in this section) – it is difficult to determine the type of influence that constraints will have on the strength of information search, given that they may lead to more search if there is intention to negotiate constraints or, alternatively, inhibit people from visiting destinations, leading to less effort in collecting information about the destinations. As a result of the process of information acquisition which takes place across the stages of the decision process, perceptions that tourists hold about destinations are likely to evolve across those stages.

The process of evaluation of destinations is represented in figure 6.2.. It involves the sequential development of choice sets in the mind of a tourist (Crompton, 1992).

Figure 6.2. – Evaluation of alternate destinations and selection of the destination to visit



The probability that a destination is chosen as the place to visit increases as it is included in subsequent sets. First, an early consideration set is developed, which is comprised of all the destinations tourists are considering as possible vacation destinations within some period of time. Then, tourists discard some of those destinations to form a late consideration set containing only destinations considered as probable vacation destinations within some period of time. Finally, from the late consideration set, tourists choose the one they want to visit. A decision about including a destination in subsequent choice sets is based, among other factors, in the following features:

- the perceptions about the destinations (its attractions, facilities and its ability to satisfy motivations);
- the strength of perceived constraints associated with visiting it;
- and the willingness to negotiate those constraints (Jackson and Scott, 1999).

The strength of interpersonal constraints (e.g. differences in preferred destinations among people who travel together) is likely to be higher when selecting destinations from the early consideration set to form the late consideration set, than in other stages of the selection process. When probable vacation destinations are selected (late consideration set) from the possible set of destinations that could satisfy their motivations (early consideration set), it is likely that tourists will take into greater account their compatibility with other persons who will travel with them and also those individuals' preferences for tourism destinations. The strength of structural constraints (e.g. availability of money and time) is likely to be higher in the selection of a destination from the late consideration set, than in other stages of the selection process. This is explained by tourists having discarded destinations with higher intrapersonal and interpersonal constraints from the late consideration set as probable vacation destinations. At that final stage, tourists have to seriously confront the realities of their structural constraints and their impact on travelling to desired destinations (Um and Crompton, 1992).

Motivation to actively acquire information and to negotiate constraints is likely to increase as tourists move through to the later stages of the evaluation process, because they perceive

destinations that are included in subsequent sets as better able to satisfy their motivations. As a result of this perception, passive information acquisition, which is prevalent in the early stages of the decision process (development of early and late consideration sets) is complemented by active information acquisition in the later stages of the process (development of late consideration set and final choice of a destination). Similar to what happens in the information search effort, the direction of search is also likely to change across the stages of the evolution of choice sets in that potential visitors are more likely to consult sources located at destinations in later stages of the destination choice process than in early stages. Further, in the late consideration set people are likely to spend more search effort in acquiring information on attributes related to facilities than in the early consideration set.

Figure 6.2. suggests that in the initial consideration set, tourists have in their minds only a rather vague, abstract, general positioning of destinations, which has been established by passive information acquisition. At this stage, they are unlikely to perceive the destination that ultimately will be chosen as being distinctively different from other destinations that also progress from the initial to the late consideration set. Rather than identifying detailed differences among destinations, tourists are likely to identify broad commonalities among the attributes of destinations that progress to the late consideration set which are significantly different from the attributes of destinations that do not progress. However, as a result of an active information search, in the late consideration set, more detailed specific positions are likely to develop in the mind for destinations in this set. As part of this more specific positioning, tourists are likely to perceive commonalities among attributes of destinations in the late consideration set which are not selected as a final choice that are distinctively different from the attributes of the destination which is finally selected. The positioning of the destination chosen is likely to change across subsequent choice sets as a result of the information acquired at each stage. Across the process of elaboration of the consideration sets, potential visitors are likely to progressively develop more homogeneous consideration sets and, therefore, the destination selected to be visited is likely to be more similar to destinations of the late consideration set not selected to be visited, than to destinations of the early consideration set not included in the late consideration set.

Consequently, potential visitors are likely to identify more significant differences between the destination they decide to visit and destinations of the early consideration set not included in subsequent sets, than between the destination visited and destinations from the late consideration set not included in the next set. In addition, people are likely to perceive more significant differences in the late consideration set, between destinations included and not included in subsequent sets, than in the early consideration set, between destinations included and not included in subsequent sets.

In each choice set, destinations included in the subsequent set are likely to differ from those not included, in several ways. Some of these differences relate to selected destinations being perceived as having a higher performance on selected attributes – attractions and facilities - or having more ability to satisfy tourists' motivations. However, destinations included in a subsequent set also may differ from those not included because they may be associated with fewer and/or weaker constraints, or because tourists' motivations to negotiate those constraints are stronger or, perhaps, both of these conditions may be present.

The facilitators and the inhibitors of the visit are likely to have more impact on the later stages of this process (Um and Crompton, 1992). As a consequence, it is likely that any differences found between destinations included and not included in a subsequent set will differ according to the stage of evolution of choice sets. The number of significant differences concerning facilities and structural constraints is likely to be higher in the late consideration set between destinations included and not included in the next set, than in the early consideration set between destinations included and not included in the next set. Additionally, considering all the significant differences among destinations regarding structural constraints and the image of the destinations (including attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations), the percentage of these differences corresponding to facilities and constraints is likely to be higher in the later stages of the choice process. This means that the percentage of significant differences corresponding to facilities and constraints is likely to be higher in the late consideration set between destinations included

and not included in the next set, than in the early consideration set between destinations included and not included in the next set.

Some time after tourists make their final choice to visit a destination they will travel to it. After a visit, they are likely to change their beliefs about it. The extent of the modification of beliefs is also related to tourists' motivations in that motivations are likely to influence their patterns of behaviour at destinations. The influence of motivations on patterns of behaviour is a function of the search for particular experiences at the destination that tourists think are most likely to generate the benefits they are seeking. Shifts in beliefs about the destination as a result of visiting it are likely to lead to changes in the positioning of this destination in relation to other destinations after the visit (Botterill and Crompton, 1996).

The visit to a destination may also have an indirect effect on a destination's positioning given that the increased experience is likely to result in visitors' information about this destination in the future relying primarily on the information they obtained from their visit. This is likely to result in less external search about this destination in the future. The elapsed time since the last visit was undertaken, may also influence the level of search effort invested in acquiring information about this destination in the future, given that tourists are likely to spent more effort for searching information about destinations that they visited a long time ago than for those that they recently visited. The geographical distance people live from the destination may also affect future search, given that people who live further away are likely to have visited the destination less frequently and are likely to receive less information about the destination. Hence, familiarity with a destination is likely to have an impact on the positioning of destinations, also because it influences the likelihood of people engaging in information search in the future.

6.2.2. Contributions of the conceptualisation

This model extends the contribution of other models in the tourism literature in three ways. First, **positioning is integrated into a framework of the destinations' selection process based on a choice sets' development approach. This involves assessing a destination's position against that of competing destinations during each stage of the process. The model identifies key differences between destinations selected as potential places to visit and their competitors at the initial consideration set, at the late consideration set, and after the visit to the destination.**

Among the other models which were reviewed, the Woodside and Lysonski (1989) and Um and Crompton (1990) conceptualizations embrace some aspects of positioning, but they are implicit rather than explicit and the variables are limited in scope.

Woodside and Lysonski (1989) recognize that affective feelings (either positive or negative) are likely to be associated with destinations and that positioning of destinations probably takes place when these associations are established. These authors postulate that the awareness set is divided into four choice sets (consideration set, inert set, unavailable-aware set and inept set) and that the kind of affective feeling associated with each destination may be influenced by its inclusion in one of those sets. However, no explanations are offered as to the kind of differences between destinations that could explain these positive and negative feelings.

A relationship between choice sets' development and destinations' positioning was suggested by Um and Crompton (1990). They empirically demonstrated that tourists' attitudes toward destinations, which are comprised of motives and inhibitors, may account for some destinations being selected for a subsequent choice set (awareness set or evoked set) while others are not. The model proposed in this thesis extends the work of Um and Crompton (1990) by identifying other kinds of differences to explain why some destinations are selected for a subsequent choice set while others are not selected. This model postulates that the two categories of destinations differ not only in ability to satisfy

motivations and inhibitors, but also in their attributes, in the kind of information acquisition (active or passive) that takes place and in the willingness to negotiate constraints.

The approach proposed by Um and Crompton (1992) also postulates that the impact of some variables that determine the progression of destinations to subsequent choice sets (motivations and inhibitors) may vary across different stages of the selection process. The model suggested here expands this perspective to incorporate three other determinants of destinations' positioning: way of acquiring information, types of attributes, and willingness to negotiate constraints.

A second contribution of this model is that **constraints which affect the destinations' selection process are classified into three categories reflecting the stage of the decision process at which they exert most influence on tourists.**

In some previous models (Woodside and Lysonski, 1989 and Ryan, 1994), the concept of constraints has been confined to "inhibitors" or "situational variables" that were conceptualized to influence the selection process between the development of an intention to visit and the final choice of the place to visit. Moutinho's model suggests that inhibitors may have an influence in the development of criteria used to evaluate destinations, but it is difficult to discern the specific stage at which this influence will occur. Even among those models that incorporate destination choice sets, only Um and Crompton (1990) relate the inhibitors to the process of choice sets' development.

Um and Crompton (1990) postulate that the operationalization of attitudes involves integrating both motives and inhibitors, and their relative weighting will determine whether or not a destination will progress to a subsequent set. However, their model did not recognize different categories of constraints whose strength may vary across the choice sets' stages.

In the leisure literature, Crawford and Godbey (1987) classified constraints to leisure participation into three categories: intrapersonal constraints, interpersonal constraints and structural constraints. In the model suggested in this thesis, this categorization of constraints is adapted to the context of tourism. Each category of constraints is assigned to the stage of the process in which the strength of its constraining influence is postulated to be greatest.

Third, **the model postulates the existence of interactions between variables that determine the positioning of tourism destinations. The role of tourists' motivations and level of involvement with a destination are postulated to be especially important and pervasive in the modification of tourism destinations' positions, at both the early consideration set and late consideration set stages, and as a result of the visit. The influence of information acquisition is also posited to be a significant determinant of the positioning of tourism destinations.**

Motivations are explicitly considered in three of the models described earlier (Moutinho, 1987; Mill and Morrison, 1998; Um and Crompton, 1990) and it is reasonable to assume that they are implicitly considered in the other models. The focus of the existing models is on the relationship between motivations and the development of perceptions about destinations' abilities to satisfy the motivations. Mill and Morrison's model (1998) is the only one that postulates the potential effect of motivations in the acquisition of information and this is limited to considering the indirect influence of motivation on tourists' sensitivity to the information provided.

In literature, there is evidence that the impact of motivations and involvement, is much broader than its influence on perceptions about destinations or on the degree of tourists' sensitivity to the information displayed. For example, constraints to leisure are no longer viewed as insurmountable barriers. It is recognized that if motivations are sufficiently strong people can negotiate constraints (effectively making them weaker).

The model suggested in this thesis extends the role of motivations by considering their role in influencing the level of involvement with a destination. The level of involvement with a destination is posited to influence the amount of search effort and the behaviour pattern at the destination visited. All of these influences on other variables of tourists' behaviour identified in the model are postulated to result in changes in destinations' positions. The impact of involvement in information acquisition, and in negotiation of constraints may also be significant in explaining the evolution of choice sets.

Previous models have recognized the importance of information search on the evaluation of alternate destinations, but have not considered changes in the search process across the evolution of choice sets. The model suggested in this thesis considers the potential impact of information search in different stages of choice sets' evolution, taking into account both the possibility that this influence changes across these stages and the potential influence of variables that determine both the impact of information search effort and of direction of search (e.g. involvement with a destination, familiarity with a destination and structural constraints).

6.2.3. Hypotheses arising from the revised model

Multiple hypotheses arise from the revised model proposed in this thesis. Table 6.1. summarises the hypotheses that will be tested in this thesis. A schematic version of part of the global model proposed, which includes the complete set of hypotheses that are going to be tested in this thesis, is presented in figure 6.3. According to the focus of the hypotheses, they were devised into four groups (table 6.1.):

(i) determinants of the strength of information search;
(ii) determinants of the image of destinations considered to be visited;
(iii) determinants of the positioning of destinations across the process of elaboration of the consideration sets;

(iv) number and type of significant differences among destinations of different consideration sets.

The first three hypotheses are related to the determinants of information search and refer to the impact of the following three factors on strength of search:

(i) structural constraints;
(ii) involvement with the destination;
(iii) familiarity with the destination – assessed in terms of number of previous visits; elapsed time since the last visit to the destination; and duration of travel to the destination (used as an indicator of the geographical distance people lived from the destination).

The subsequent group of hypothesis (hypothesis 4) is associated with the effects of strength for searching information about destinations, on destinations' images regarding attractions.

Hypotheses 5 to 8 refer to the determinants of the positioning of destinations during the elaboration of choice sets. Four determinants are considered in this context:

(i) the structural constraints;
(ii) the strength of information search;
(iii) the direction of search;
(iv) the image of destinations regarding tourism attractions, facilities and the destinations' abilities to satisfy motivations.

Table 6.1. – Summary of all the hypotheses that will be tested in this thesis

A. Determinants of the strength of information search
Hypothesis 1. In the case of the areas chosen to be visited, the **strength of information search** for a destination is likely to be **positively related to** the level of **constraints** people perceive **to travelling to that destination**. Specifically, the strength of information search is likely to be: **(a) positively related to** perceived **financial constraints to travelling to that destination**; **(b) positively related to** perceived **time constraints to travelling to that destination**; **(c) positively related to** perceived **accessibility constraints to travelling to that destination**.

Hypothesis 2. In any consideration set, the **strength of information search** for a destination being considered for a visit, is likely to be **positively related to** the importance and pleasure dimensions of **involvement with that destination**.

Hypothesis 3. In any consideration set, the **strength of information search** for a destination being considered for a visit, is likely to be **negatively related to** level of **familiarity with those destinations**. Specifically, the strength of information search is likely to be:
(a) inversely related to the **number of previous visits** made to that destination;
(b) positively related to the **duration of travel to that destination**;
(c) positively related to the **elapsed time since the last visit to that destination**.

B. Determinants of the image of attractions at destinations being considered for a visit

Hypothesis 4. During the elaboration of consideration sets, the **image of a destination** being considered for a visit (in terms of attractions) is likely to be **positively related to** the **strength of information search** for the attractions of that destination.

C. Determinants of the positioning of destinations across the process of elaboration of consideration sets

Hypothesis 5. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **negatively related to** the level of **constraints** people perceive **to travelling to that destination**. Specifically, people are likely to include in subsequent consideration sets, destinations to which they perceived lower:
(a) financial constraints;
(b) time constraints;
(c) accessibility constraints.

Hypothesis 6. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the **strength of information search for that destination**. Specifically, people are likely to include in subsequent consideration sets destinations for which they:
(a) spent more time searching for information;
(b) consulted more information sources;
(c) searched for information for a higher number of attributes of those destinations.

Hypothesis 7. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the extent to which **information sources located at that destination** were consulted. This means that the destinations for which people searched for information consulting sources located at those destinations, are more likely to be included in subsequent consideration sets than destinations for which people did not use this kind of sources.

Hypothesis 8. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the **image of that destination** (in terms of attractions, facilities and a destination's ability to satisfy motivations). Specifically, people are likely to include in the subsequent consideration sets destinations for which they have **a better image in terms of**:
(a) specific attractions and/or;
(b) specific facilities and/or;
(c) the ability to satisfy specific motivations.

D. Number and type of significant differences among destinations in different consideration sets

In the following hypotheses:

- the destination included in the late consideration set and selected as a destination to visit was designated as **area visited;**
- the destinations included in the late consideration set but not selected as a destination to visit were designated as **strongest competitors**;
- the destinations included in the early consideration set but not included in the late consideration sets were designated as **weakest competitors**;
- the **image of a destination** corresponds to the perceptions people have of the destination in terms of attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations.

Hypothesis 9:

(a) The total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the weakest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**

is likely to be higher than

the total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**.

(b) The total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**

is likely to be higher than

the total **number of significant differences** between the strongest and weakest competitors that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**.

Hypothesis 10:

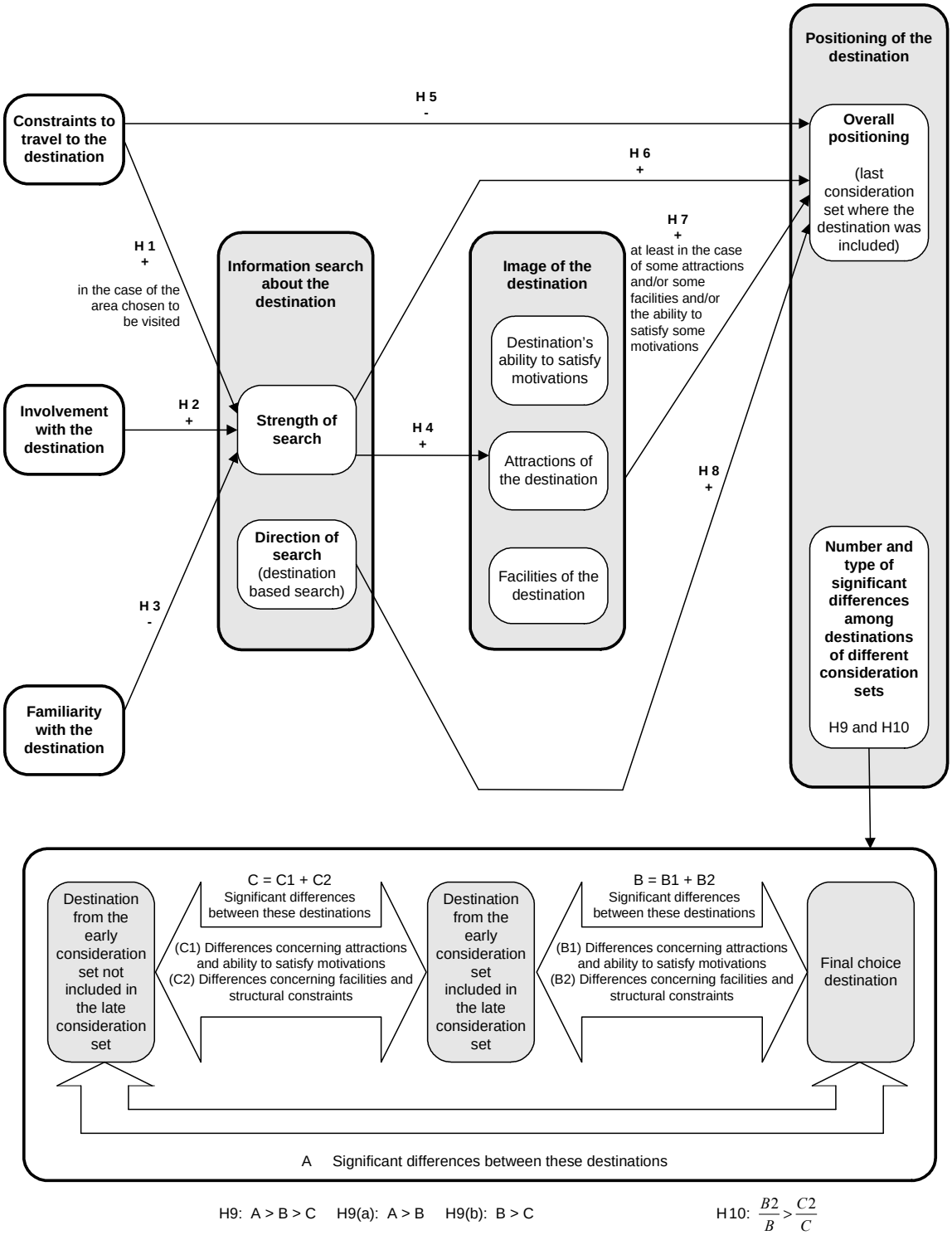
The percentage of **significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **(i) facilities** and **(ii) structural constraints**

is likely to be higher than

the percentage of **significant differences** between the strongest and weakest competitors that correspond to **(i) facilities** and **(ii) structural constraints**.

The last two hypotheses are related to the number and types of differences found among destinations in different consideration sets. As far as type of differences is concerned, the focus is on whether the impact of structural constraints and perceptions about facilities changes across the stages of the destination choice process.

Figure 6.3. – The destination choice model proposed – hypotheses underlying the model



Key: **+** positive significant influence; **-** negative significant influence

6.3. CONCLUSION

The destination choice model proposed in this thesis attempts to overcome some of the limitations identified in previous models by:

- explicitly identifying the way tourists evaluate destinations as the selection process progresses across different stages (by comparing, in each set, the destinations that have been included in the subsequent set and those that have not);
- expanding the range of determinants in positioning destinations considered in other models (e.g. considering the potential influence of interpersonal constraints in destinations' positioning);
- considering the way the influence of potential determinants of positioning (e.g. information search) changes during the evolution of choice sets;
- taking into account the potential interactions between variables that may affect a destination's positioning across different stages of the choice sets' evolution process (e.g. by taking into account the motivations to negotiate constraints; the influence of some determinants of positioning (e.g. structural constraints) in information search;
- explicitly taking into consideration how the impact of determinants of information search (e.g. structural constraints) changes across different stages of the choice sets' evolution process;
- explicitly incorporating a positioning perspective in the process of choice sets' development.

The new model suggests that information search plays an important role in the positioning of destinations, being a moderator variable in this process. It is postulated that the strength of information search is influenced by structural constraints, level of involvement with the destinations and familiarity with the destinations. However, information search is postulated to determine the positioning of destinations, both directly because visitors usually engage in more search in the later stages of destination choice, and indirectly given

that the information collected is likely to change the images that potential visitors hold about destinations. In addition to the effects of the strength of search on positioning, it is recognised that the positioning of destinations in relation to competitors may also be affected by the direction of search, and it is postulated that there will be more intense use of information sources located at the destinations in the later stages of the decision process.

The model suggests that the positioning of destinations is determined not only by information search, but also by structural constraints and by the images of destinations in terms of their attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations. These images may be shaped by information acquisition. Another issue highlighted by the model is that both the influence of determinants of positioning and the number of significant differences among destinations of different sets, are likely to differ across the process of elaboration of choice sets. People are likely to invest more effort in information search and to consult more information sources located at the destination in the later stages of the choice process. Similarly, the structural constraints and the perceptions about facilities are likely to have more impact in the latter stages of destination choice.

Having described the model and the hypotheses that will be tested in this thesis, subsequent chapters provide a description of the methodology adopted for the empirical procedures. The objective of the empirical procedures is to test the hypotheses that arose from the proposed model.

CHAPTER 7 – GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS WHERE THE EMPIRICAL STUDY WAS CONDUCTED

7.1. INTRODUCTION

One of the objectives of this thesis was to test the hypotheses underlying the model with at least two groups of people with different characteristics, in order to observe whether it is possible to find some consistency between the findings obtained from the two groups. Consequently, the questionnaire was administered to people who were visiting two different destinations.

This chapter describes the geographical areas where the study was carried out and why they were selected. The second part of the chapter profiles the two areas based on existing literature and includes statistical data provided by organisations that manage tourism attractions in these areas.

7.2. SELECTION OF THE GEOGRAPHICAL AREAS

Some of the objectives of this thesis were: (i) to analyse whether the process of searching for information about tourism destinations is influenced by specific factors such as perceived constraints to travel to the destination; (ii) to better understand the process of selecting a place to visit; and (iii) to verify if the information searched influences the process of selecting a place to visit. One of the study's implications is to assess whether it is possible to influence the decision process of selecting destinations by managing the information about the destinations provided or by taking actions that influence factors (e.g. constraints to travel to specific destinations) that affect information search.

Negative impacts of tourism often are caused if there is a high concentration of people in some places. Therefore, many countries that have extensively supported development of

"sun and beach" tourism are now opting to support the development of alternate tourism products in order to geographically disperse tourism flows across their territories.

Siracaya *et al.* (1999) and Fennell (1999) suggest that ecotourism has been defined as a tourism product which: (i) is developed in relatively undisturbed natural areas; (ii) offers opportunities for contacting with and appreciating nature; (iii) has few negative impacts on the resources of the destination; and (iv) which provides economic benefits to the local community. Blamey (2001) principles of ecotourism were: (i) nature based; (ii) providing opportunities for education and interpretation of the natural environment and associated cultural manifestations; and (iii) being sustainably managed. In 2002, WTO developed a definition of ecotourism. In great part, this definition corroborated the characteristics and principles previously identified, although it provided more detail on issues such as tour operators and travel arrangements. The definition of ecotourism proposed by the WTO (2002) was:

(i) "it includes all nature-based forms of tourism in which the main motivation of the tourists is the observation and appreciation of nature as well as the traditional cultures prevailing in natural areas;
(ii) it contains educational and interpretation features;
(iii) it is generally, but not exclusively organized for small groups by specialized and small, locally owned businesses. Foreign operators of varying sizes also organize, operate, and/or market ecotourism tours, generally for small groups.
(iv) it minimizes negative impacts upon the natural environment;
(v) it supports the protection of natural areas by:
    - generating economic benefits for host communities, organizations, and authorities managing natural areas with conservation purposes;
    - providing alternative employment and income opportunities for local communities;
    - increasing awareness towards the conservation of natural and cultural assets; both among locals and tourists" (p.18).

Given the advantages of ecotourism and that it is likely to develop in relatively undisturbed areas, ecotourism seems to be a good alternative to "sun and beach" tourism. The Québec declaration on ecotourism (WTO, 2002b), which resulted from the World Ecotourism

Summit that took place in Québec in 2002, is an important expression of recognition of the importance of ecotourism. It identifies several characteristics of ecotourism and some principles that, according to a number of ecotourism stakeholders, should underlie the development of this type of tourism, such as formulating ecotourism policies and development strategies and adopting a reliable certification system.

Ecotourism has developed a lot in recent decades. In the second half of the 1990s, 54,6% of the German holidaymakers stated that the direct experience of nature was an important criterion for choosing a travel destination, whereas 34.3% assigned a high importance to opportunities for wildlife watching, and 32.4% to opportunities for visiting a natural/national park (von Laβberg in WTO, 2001a). At the end of the 1990s, between 4% and 5% of the US travellers flying overseas or to Mexico mentioned that they had participated in environmental/ecological excursions (WTO, 2002). In 2000, the number of visits to US National Parks reached 286 million. In 1996, 18.6% of Canadians (4.4 million) over age 15 participated in wildlife viewing, and for 1.5 million of those, wildlife viewing was the main activity (Environment Canada in WTO, 2002a).

In Portugal, in 2004, more than 258,000 people visited Portuguese protected areas (ICN, 2005a). This number corresponds to the total number who used nature houses, participated in guided tours and/or contacted facilities on the protected areas. According to the WTO (2001), the international market for ecotourism is growing at about 20% per year.

According to Lawton (2001), a majority of ecotourism takes place in protected areas. Weaver (2001) contends this occurs because protected areas usually:

- have an outstanding natural environment;
- preserve this outstanding environment from activities that may be prejudicial to it;
- offer opportunities for learning and appreciating.

In Portugal, specific legislation for promoting and regulating tourism development in protected areas was introduced in 1999 (Law Decree (LD) 47/99; Regulation Decree (RD) 2/99; RD 18/99). This legislation (LD 47/99) established the concept of nature tourism, which refers to a tourism product that is developed based on establishments, activities,

accommodation services and tourism and environmental animation carried out at sites located in the network of protected areas. It was recognized as nature tourism, the accommodation services provided in rural tourism houses and in nature houses. Three different categories of nature houses were identified:

- "*casas-abrigo*": houses recovered from governmental heritage whose original function was deactivated, and which may or may not be used as accommodation by their owners;
- "*centros de acolhimento*": houses built or adapted from an existing building, that enable the accommodation of groups, with the objective of environmental education and study visits of scientific character;
- "*casas-retiro*": houses recovered that kept the genuine character of their architecture, from traditional rural buildings or buildings of typified architecture, which may or may not be used as accommodation by their owners. .

The legislation also recognised as nature tourism several types of environmental animation (DR 18/99):

- animation (e.g. theme routes; traditional games; and festivities);
- environmental interpretation (e.g. interpretation centres; interpretative trails; and ecomuseums);
- nature sports (e.g. climbing; canoeing; and windsurf).

Giving the high growth of ecotourism and the high potential of ecotourism for contributing to a more homogeneous distribution of visitors across the geographic area of a country, was decided to administer the questionnaires in protected areas which had a high potential for the development of ecotourism.

Next, it is going to be explained how the two protected areas where the study was undertaken were selected (figure 7.1.). In Portugal there are protected areas of national interest and of regional or local interest. For this study, only the most significant protected areas – those of national interest were selected. There are four kinds of national protected areas (see figure 7.1.). The intention was to carry out the study in two different protected areas, in order to validate hypotheses tested in this study in two places which have different characteristics.

Figure 7.1. - Methodology for selecting the sites for administering the questionnaires

Selection of the kind of protected areas where the questionnaires will be administered

Protected areas of national interest according to the Portuguese legislation [a]	Corresponding category of protected areas according to the IUCN classification [b]	Appropriatness for tourism [c]	Kind of areas selected	Protected areas selected
National park	V	1	X	Peneda-Gerês National Park
Natural reserve	IV	3		
Natural park	II	1	X	Natural park to be selected
Natural monument	V	1		

Key: [a] L.D. 19/93 23th January; (b) Source: UNEP-WCMC (2002); (c) Source: IUCN (1994).
1 - Primary objective; 2 - Secondary objective; 3 - Potentially apllicable objective.

Selection of the natural park where the questionnaire may be administred

- selection of the NUTs II where the natural park should be located -

NUTs II of Portugal	Criteria 1 A NUT II different from that where the Peneda-Gerês National Park is located	Criteria 2 Not high financial and time constraints to carry out the study in this NUT	Criteria 3 Receiving more foreigners than Portuguese in hotel establishments [d]		NUTs II selected
North	No	Yes	Portuguese (67%) Foreigners (33%)	No	
Centre	Yes	Yes	Portuguese (70%) Foreigners (30%)	No	
Lisbon and Tejo Valley	Yes	Yes	Portuguese (38%) Foreigners (62%)	Yes	X
Alentejo	Yes	Yes	Portuguese (69%) Foreigners (31%)	No	
Algarve	Yes	Yes	Portuguese (27%) Foreigners (73%)	Yes	X
Autonomous Region of Açores	Yes	No	Portuguese (72%) Foreigners (28%)	No	
Autonomous Region of Madeira	Yes	No	Portuguese (21%) Foreigners (79%)	Yes	

Key: [d] Source: INE (2001)

- selection of the specific natural park where the questionnaire should be administered -

NUTs II of Portugal	Natural parks located in each NUT II [e]	Criteria 4 High significance in terms of cultural attractions according to the UNESCO [f]	Natural park selected
Lisbon and Tejo Valley	Natural Park of "Serras de Aire and Candeeiros" [g] Natural Park of "Sintra-Cascais" Natural Park of "Arrábida"	No Yes-Cultural landscape of Sintra No	X
Algarve	Natural Park of "Ria Formosa" Natural Park of "Sudoeste Alentejano e Costa Vicentina" [h]	No No	

Key: [e] Source: ICN (2005); [f] Source: UNESCO (2005); (g) Part of this natural park is also located in the Centre region;
[h] Part of this natural park is also located in the Alentejo region

First, a correspondence was established between the classification of the protected areas used in the Portuguese legislation and the classification of protected areas suggested by the IUCN. The national parks, the natural parks and the natural monuments seem to be the protected areas most appropriate for tourism activities according to criteria suggested by the IUCN (figure 7.1.). The only national park existing in Portugal is the Peneda-Gerês National Park, so it was one of the selected sites (see the first table in figure 7.1.). In order to ensure that the other site selected would have different characteristics from the Gerês National Park it was decided to select a natural park based on the following criteria:

- criterion 1: was located in a NUT II different from that of the Gerês park;
- criterion 2: was located in a NUT II where the study could be undertaken without unreasonably high financial and time demands on the investigation;
- criterion 3: was located in a NUT II that had a different kind of tourism market from that of the Gerês, in terms of the nationality of the visitors;
- criterion 4: differed, at least in some way, from the Gerês National Park in terms of the kind of tourism attractions it possessed.

Criteria 1 to 3 determined the NUTs II where the natural park could be located (see the second table in figure 7.1.) whereas criterion 4 specified the characteristics that the natural park should have (see the third table in figure 7.1.). Given that Gerês National Park is located in the North NUT II, according to criterion 1 the natural park would have to be located in one of the other 6 NUTs II (see the second table of figure 7.1.). The NUTs II of the Autonomous Regions of Açores and Madeira were excluded because of the high financial and time constraints to carry out the study there. In the North NUT II there is a much higher number of Portuguese tourists than of foreign tourists. Since criterion 3 postulated that the natural park should be located in a NUT II whose market differed from that of Gerês in terms of the nationality of the visitors, the natural park should be located in a NUT II where there were more foreign tourists than Portuguese tourists. Three NUTs II seemed to be in this condition - “Lisbon and Tejo Valley”, “Autonomous Region of Madeira” and “Algarve”. Consequently, only “Lisbon and Tejo Valley” and “Algarve” seemed to meet the first three criteria.

The fourth criterion indicated that the natural park should differ, at least in some way, from the Gerês National Park in terms of the kind of tourism attractions it possesses. As the main attractions of Portuguese National Parks are likely to be natural attractions, it was decided to choose a natural park with a significant cultural heritage. Given that it is subjective to evaluate if a protected area is significant in terms of cultural attractions, classifications already provided by organizations recognized as experts in the field of cultural heritage were analyzed. Consequently, it was decided to base this selection in the classification used by UNESCO to categorize the sites as world heritage, which includes criteria for evaluating the natural and cultural significance of the sites. In the NUTs II "Lisbon and Tejo Valley" and "Algarve" the only protected area that integrated a site classified by UNESCO as world heritage (UNESCO, 2005) was the Natural Park of Sintra-Cascais. This protected area met three of the cultural criteria used by UNESCO to assess the significance of the area (UNESCO, 2005a). Therefore, the Natural Park of Sintra-Cascais was the natural park chosen to carry out the study, having met criteria 1, 2, 3 and 4.

7.3. CHARACTERISATION OF THE AREAS WHERE THE EMPIRICAL STUDY WAS CONDUCTED

Peneda-Gerês National Park was created in 1971 and covers an area of 70,000 ha approximately. It comprises part of the area of five municipalities – Arcos de Valdevez, Melgaço, Montalegre, Ponte da Barca and Terras de Bouro. It is located in the Northwest of Portugal, and its southern parts are about 40 to 50 kms away from Braga and 410 to 420 Kms away from Lisbon. There is a good access to Braga by train or by highway (for those coming from places such as Lisbon or Porto) (ICN, 2005). From Braga to the Park, the access is not so good, consisting of roads of lower quality. As far as public transportation is concerned, there are buses for some sites of the Gerês, departing from Braga (ICN, 2005).

The Sintra-Cascais Natural Park is much smaller than the Gerês Park, encompassing about 15,000 ha (ICN, 2005). This park comprises part of the area of two municipalities – Sintra and Cascais. It was created in 1981 as a protected landscape and was reclassified in 1994

as a natural park (ICN, 2005). It is located in the West of Portugal, 25 kms away from Lisbon. Sintra is very accessible from Lisbon, either by train, by bus or by car. Those who travel by car can get there by the IC (complementary itinerary) 19. There are also buses between Sintra and Cascais and, also, between these sites and neighbouring sites – Mafra, Estoril and Ericeira (ICN, 2005).

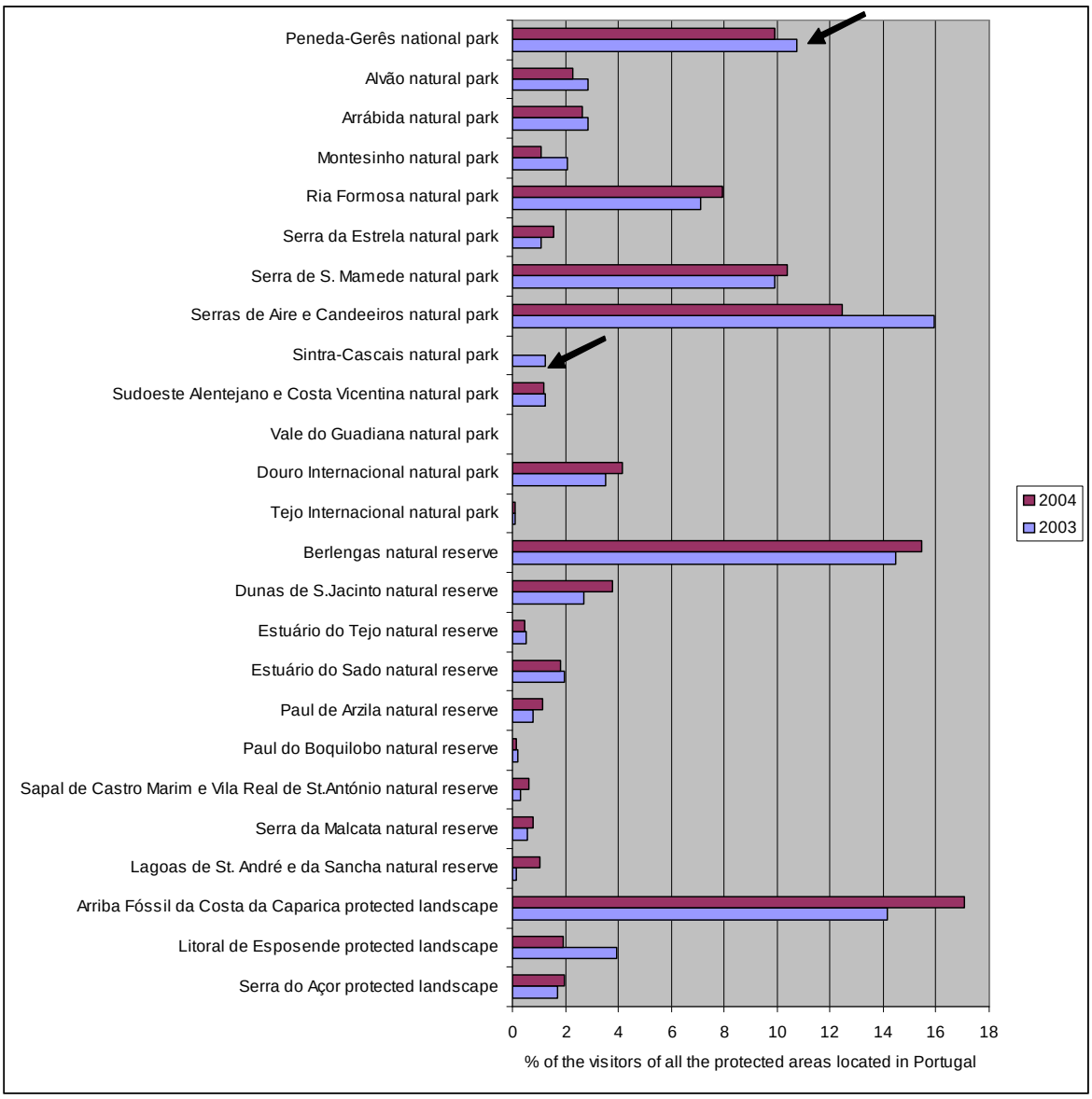
Before beginning to describe the parks in more detail, it seems useful to have a broad picture of the importance that the parks have in the national context of the protected areas. For this purpose, data about the visitors of the two parks were analysed. In 2003 and 2004, the Gerês park accounted for around 10% (around 40,000 visitors) of total visitors to the protected areas located in Portugal, whereas the Sintra park accounted for only 1% (approximate 4,000 visitors) of this global number[1] (figure 7.2.).

This shows the major role that the Gerês park has in the national context of protected areas, and also highlights differences between the parks. Additionally, it may be observed that the number of visitors in the two parks has had large oscillations (figure 7.3.). However, a common trend in the two parks was a decrease in visitors between the last years of the last century and 2001, and an increase in visitors between 2001 and 2003.

The data on visitors to the parks that were previously presented only related to those using nature houses, participating in guided tours and/or contacting facilities in the protected areas. The next sections provide a broader view about visitors to the two parks, and offer an analysis of the two parks in terms of tourism attractions and facilities.

[1] There were no data available for the Sintra park in 2004.

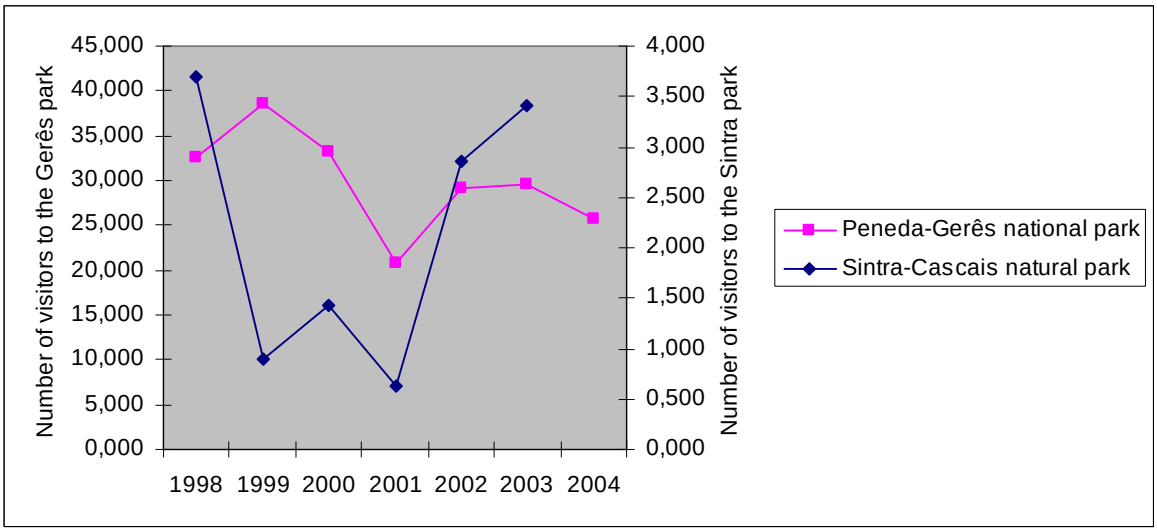
Figure 7.2. – Visitors to the protected areas located in Portugal (% of the total number of visitors to the protected areas located in Portugal)



Note: These data only refer to people who used nature houses, participated in guided tours and/or contacted the facilities of the protected areas.

Source: Elaborated based on ICN (2005a)

Figure 7.3. – Evolution of the visitors to the Gerês and Sintra parks



Note: These data only refer to people who used nature houses, participated in guided tours and/or contacted the facilities of the protected areas.

Source: Elaborated based on ICN (2005a)

7.3.1. Natural heritage

The Gerês Park is a special site for the protection of birds in the scope of the birds directive from the EU, and is also included in the National List of Sites in the scope of the European Union (EU) directive "habitats" (ICN, 2005). Additionally, it is included in the Network Natura 2000 and part of its flora is classified as a biogenetic reserve in the network created by the European Council (ICN, 2005).

In both parks there is a remarkable variety of species of birds. In the Gerês park 147 species were identified, whereas in the Sintra park this number rises to 179 species (ICN, 2005). In Gerês, some species of birds are especially important, namely: the golden-eagle; the eagle owl; the peregrine; and the red-backed shrike (ICN, 2001a). In Sintra the marine birds predominate. Among them, are species of goose, "*guinchos*" and crows (ICN, 2005).

In Gerês, several species associated with the water flows are of outstanding value, namely moles, otters, blackbirds, salamanders and the trout-of-river (ICN, 2005). Some important species of marten and wolves are found in Gerês. The fauna of this Park is enriched by two

important species of butterflies (ICN, 2005). In the geographical area encompassed by the Sintra park, is possible to find more than 200 species of animals, including 32 of mammals and 12 of amphibians (ICN, 2005).

In both protected areas there are rare and threatened animals. In Sintra, for example, there is the Bonelli eagle (ICN, 2005). There are species of bats in danger in both areas. In contrast, some animals such as the red-squirrel are expanding.

The flora of Gerês is marked by the predominance of the Common Oak and the Pyrenean Oak (ICN, 2001a). This park has many species of outstanding value, such as: the Gerês fern; specific species of daffodils; the Gerês iris; and the thrift (ICN, 2005). The Sintra park has a high diversity of flora species and more than 900 autochthonous species were already identified (ICN, 2005).

Both parks contain threatened flora species. For example, in Gerês there are the Gerês-iris, the thymelaea and the thrift (ICN, 2001a). In the Sintra Park there are the carnation of Sintra, the myosote of beaches and specific holly species (ICN, 2005).

About 60% of the Park, corresponding to the coastal and mountain areas, was also integrated in the National List of Sites, in the scope of the European Union (EU) directive "habitats" (ICN, 2005).

Another important attraction of the Gerês Park is the spa that exists in the park. The spa is well known for its springs of thermal water which are renowned for their characteristics. Among other characteristics the water is bicarbonated, sodic and one of the most fluorinated waters in Portugal and Europe (DGT, 2005). These waters have a restorative effect on digestive, endocrine, circulatory and respiratory diseases (DGT, 2005).

7.3.2. Cultural heritage

Due to the important role of the IPPAR in the classification of the architectonic heritage, it was decided to take into consideration the data provided by this organisation about the

Portuguese architectonic heritage classified. However, due to the difficulty in specifically identifying the architectonic heritage that is located inside the boundaries of the parks, the characterisation of the architectonic heritage here presented is going to encompass the architectonic heritage located in the whole area of the municipalities of the parks.

Although the Sintra Natural Park occupies a much smaller area than the Gerês National Park, in the municipalities belonging to the Sintra Park there is a higher quantity of architectural heritage classified – heritage classified as national monument, buildings of public interest or buildings of municipal interest - (a total of 91 heritage exemplars), than in the municipalities belonging to the Gerês Park (where only 67 heritage exemplars exist in the three previous mentioned classifications) (table 7.1.).

Table 7.1. – Classified architectural heritage of the two parks

		Sintra Natural Park				Gerês National Park						
Level of classification	Category/ tipology	Sintra	Cascais	Total		Arcos de Valdevez	Melgaço	Montalegre	Ponte da Barca	Terras de Bouro	Total	
National monument	Archaeology	3	0	3	3%	2	2	1	0	1	6	9%
	Civil architecture	9	0	9	10%	3	1	0	2	0	6	9%
	Military architecture	1	0	1	1%	0	2	1	1	0	4	6%
	Religious architecture	4	0	4	4%	1	5	2	3	1	12	18%
	Not specified	1	0	1	1%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
	Total	18	0	18	20%	6	10	4	6	2	28	42%
Building of public interest	Archaeology	7	8	15	16%	1	0	2	0	4	7	10%
	Civil architecture	14	6	20	22%	8	6	0	2	0	16	24%
	Military architecture	1	16	17	19%	2	0	0	0	0	2	3%
	Religious architecture	13	1	14	15%	6	3	0	1	0	10	15%
	Total	35	31	66	73%	17	9	2	3	4	35	52%
Building of municipal interest	Archaeology	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
	Civil architecture	2	3	5	5%	1	0	0	0	0	1	1%
	Military architecture	0	0	0	0%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
	Religious architecture	1	1	2	2%	2	0	1	0	0	3	4%
	Total	3	4	7	8%	3	0	1	0	0	4	6%
Total		56	35	91	100%	26	19	7	9	6	67	100%

Source: Elaborated based on IPPAR (2006)

In both parks there seems to be a predominance of buildings of public interest (they account for 73% of the architectonic heritage classified in Sintra and 52% of the architectonic heritage classified in Gerês), which are followed by the national monuments (that represent 20% and 42% of the architectonic heritage classified, respectively, in Sintra and in Gerês). In both protected areas, buildings of municipal interest only represent a smaller part of the architectonic heritage classified (less than 10%). Although the Gerês

National park has more national monuments (28) than the Sintra Park (18), it should be noted that, in Gerês the majority of these monuments (43%) are religious architecture (namely churches, chapels, large crosses set up in roads/public places and some monasteries), whereas in Sintra the majority of these monuments (50%) are civil architecture – namely palaces.

Of outstanding value, among the national monuments of Sintra are palaces. One of these is the Pena National Palace, a magnificent expression of romantic architecture (CCS, 2006), which resulted from a reconstruction of the old monastery of our Lady of Pena (IPPAR, 2006). The old monastery, which suffered adaptations so that the real family could stay there during the summer, is now an important palace with a mix of different architectural styles (IPPAR, 2006). The Vila Palace (also called Sintra National Palace), located in the centre of Sintra, has probably belonged, previously, to the Moorish wallis (IPPAR, 2006). The actual layout of this building is the result of two stages of reconstruction – one in the reign of King John I (15th century) and another in the reign of D. Manuel I (16th century) (CCS, 2006). The architecture of this building is marked by its two chimneys of about 33m in height (IPPAR, 2006), that are one of the most well known symbols of Sintra. In 2004, these two palaces received more visitors than many important heritage sites managed by the IPPAR such as the Monastery of Batalha, the Tower of Belém, the Fortress of Sagres and the Monastery of Alcobaça (see table 7.2.).

Table 7.2. – Number of visitors to heritage managed by the IPPAR

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004
Monastery of Jerónimos	463,380	414,916	421,997	417,951	430,961
National Palace of Sintra (Vila Palace)	421,493	369,673	387,229	377,635	350,475
National Palace of Pena	350,875	327,654	379,964	345,958	329,674
Monastery of Batalha	366,216	384,112	407,309	326,538	296,729
Tower of Belém	311,075	301,115	344,544	304,957	271,327
Fortress of Sagres	323,831	273,417	274,175	280,230	260,775
The royal residence of the Dukes of Bragança	194,643	165,110	215,816	189,503	194,811
Monastery of Alcobaça	232,357	225,352	225,771	211,480	178,063
Convent of Christ	168,593	149,658	135,248	149,643	153,976
National Palace of Queluz	211,084	174,531	160,166	149,471	144,385
National Palace of Mafra	129,771	113,936	109,524	98,118	108,369
National Pantheon	17,414	40,556	32,086	33,543	35,501
Monastery of S. Martinho de Tibães	9,259	11,987	27,690	20,288	29,883
National Palace of Ajuda	51,131	29,350	43,982	28,464	28,232
Total	3,251,122	2,981,367	3,165,501	2,933,779	2,813,161

Source: Elaborated based on IPPAR (2005)

Another important palace is the Queluz National Palace, not only because of the building, but also because of its gardens, where many concerts and exhibitions take place (CCS, 2006), making them important animation sites. Another national monument that also became a symbol of Sintra is the Moorish Castle, which dates back to the early period of the Moorish occupation (CCS, 2006).

Other important monuments of the Gerês Park are castles – namely the castles of Melgaço, of Montalegre, and that of Lindoso (located in the municipality of Ponte da Barca) (IPPAR, 2006). However, the national monuments in the Gerês park are dominated by religious heritage, which accounts for almost half of these monuments (table 7.1.). This religious heritage includes monasteries – namely those of "Santa Maria das Júnias" (in Montalegre) and of Ermelo (in Arcos de Valdevez) - or their vestiges, as well as a lot of churches, some chapels and some crosses set up in roads/public places. Roman architecture characterises the majority of these religious national monuments, with some examples being the Church of Fiães and the remains of the Monastery of Fiães (Melgaço), the Monastery of Ermelo (Arcos de Valdevez), the Church of Paderne (Melgaço) and the Church of Bravães (Ponte da Barca) (IPPAR, 2006). Another remarkable national monument of the municipality of Ponte da Barca is the bridge over the river Lima (IPPAR, 2006). Some other bridges in the municipalities of Gerês Park are of remarkable value, however, the majority of them were classified by the IPPAR as of public interest, and are referred in one of the following paragraphs.

Although the municipalities belonging to the Peneda-Gerês park have a higher quantity of national monuments than those belonging to the Sintra park, if the monuments of these parks are compared in terms of drawing power - one of the criteria suggested by Cooper *et al.* (1998) and Mill and Morrison (2002) to classify tourism attractions (see section 4.3.2.) – some of the Sintra palaces – have a drawing power superior to that of the national monuments of Gerês, since the national monuments in Gerês include many churches and several large crosses set up in roads/public places. This issue is addressed later, where data about the demand at the two parks are presented.

In both parks, the prevalent type of buildings of public interest is that of civil architecture (table 7.1.). However, whereas the Sintra park predominates in palaces and farms, the Gerês park predominates in bridges and manor-houses (based on data from the IPPAR, 2006). Among the palaces of Sintra classified as having public interest are the Monserrate and Seteais palaces. The set of all the "espigueiros" of Soajo (in Gerês) is also classified as of public interest. The Sintra park has much more archaeology and military architecture of public interest than the Gerês park. In the case of the military architecture this may be related to Cascais, the municipality where this kind of architecture exists in higher quantity, being located on the coast and where the majority of the military architecture are forts (IPPAR, 2006).

In the Sintra Park the majority of the classified architectural heritage is located in the Sintra municipality, but Cascais has a significant quantity of the classified heritage of the park (38%) (table 7.1.). In the Gerês park, the classified architectural heritage is highly concentrated in two municipalities that together encompass more than two-thirds of the classified architectural heritage of the park – Arcos de Valdevez and Melgaço.

The outstanding value of the cultural heritage found in Sintra led to the classification of the cultural landscape of Sintra as a world heritage site (UNESCO World Heritage Center, 2005).

To complement the inventory on cultural heritage it was decided to analyse data concerning the museums that exist in the parks. This analysis was based on data provided by the INE. As INE only provides data by municipality, the procedure used was to quantify the number of museums in the municipalities where the parks are located.

Between 2000 and 2003 (the last year for which there are data available), the municipalities of the Gerês park only had one museum that fulfilled the conditions required by the INE (table 7.3.). As a consequence of the low number of museums in this region, there are no data available about the visitors to the museums. Conversely, in the same period, in the two municipalities of the Sintra park, the number of museums oscillated between 8 and 10. In 2003, the number of visitors to these museums was about 900,000

(table 7.3.). The number of museums and museum visitors in the Sintra Park corroborates the high cultural importance of this park. It is undeniable that the Sintra Park has a much more important cultural heritage as far as museums are concerned than the Gerês park. However, looking to the evolution of the number of museum visitors in the Sintra Park, although the number of visitors presented some oscillations between 1999 and 2003 in both municipalities analysed, the global number of number of visitors decreased 11% between 1999 and 2003 (figure 7.4.).

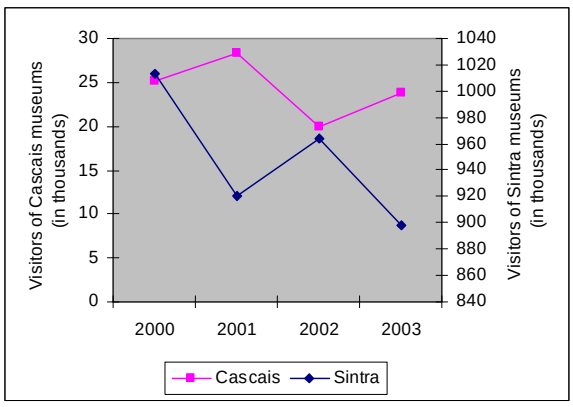
Table 7.3. – Museums of the two parks

		Museums				Visitors			
		2000	2001	2002	2003	2000	2001	2002	2003
Gerês National Park	**Municipalities where the park is located**								
	Arcos de Valdevez	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Melgaço	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	…
	Ponte da Barca	1	1	-	-	…	…	-	-
	Terras de Bouro	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Montalegre	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Total	1	1	-	1	…	…	-	…
Sintra Natural Park	**Municipalities where the park is located**								
	Cascais	3	3	3	3	25,221	28,312	19,940	23,721
	Sintra	5	7	7	6	1,013,611	920,834	963,877	897,916
	Total	8	10	10	9	1,038,832	949,146	983,817	921,637

Note: … - confidential data

Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

Figure 7.4. – Evolution of the number of visitors to the museums of the municipalities of the Sintra park



Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

7.3.3. Facilities to support tourism

The aim of this section is to identify the facilities designed to support tourism development that exist in the two protected areas under analysis. First, a characterisation of the hotel establishments of the parks is carried out, based on statistical data of the INE. As the data of INE about hotel establishments are only available by municipality, it is not possible to identify the exact number of hotel establishments located inside the boundaries of the parks. However, given that the visitors to the park may also stay in accommodation outside the park, the characterisation of hotel establishments here presented will refer to both establishments located in the municipalities where the parks are located and, also, to establishments located in the NUTs III where the parks are located.

Looking at table 7.4., it is possible to observe that, in 2004, the two municipalities of the Sintra park had double the hotel establishments (56) that existed in the five municipalities of the Gerês park (28).

Table 7.4. – Number of hotel establishments of the two parks and their lodging capacity, in 2004

		Establishments				Lodging capacity			
		Total	Hotels	Boarding houses	Other	Total	Hotels	Boarding houses	Other
Gerês National Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Minho-Lima	58	9	35	14	3,269	1,080	1,563	626
	Cávado	60	16	37	7	4,426	2,238	1,777	411
	Alto Trás-os-Montes	58	9	42	7	3,580	1,310	1,959	311
	Total	176	34	114	28	11,275	4,628	5,299	1,348
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Arcos de Valdevez	3	-	3	-	173	-	173	-
	Melgaço	2	-	1	1	166	-	102	64
	Ponte da Barca	4	-	3	1	111	-	103	8
	Terras de Bouro	16	3	12	1	967	270	642	55
	Montalegre	3	-	-	3	149	-	-	149
	Total	28	3	19	6	1,566	270	1,020	276
Sintra Natural Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Grande Lisboa	261	120	114	27	41,909	31,504	6,321	4,084
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Cascais	38	21	5	12	6,527	4,095	198	2,234
	Sintra	18	7	5	6	1,312	914	214	184
	Total	56	28	10	18	7,839	5,009	412	2,418

Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

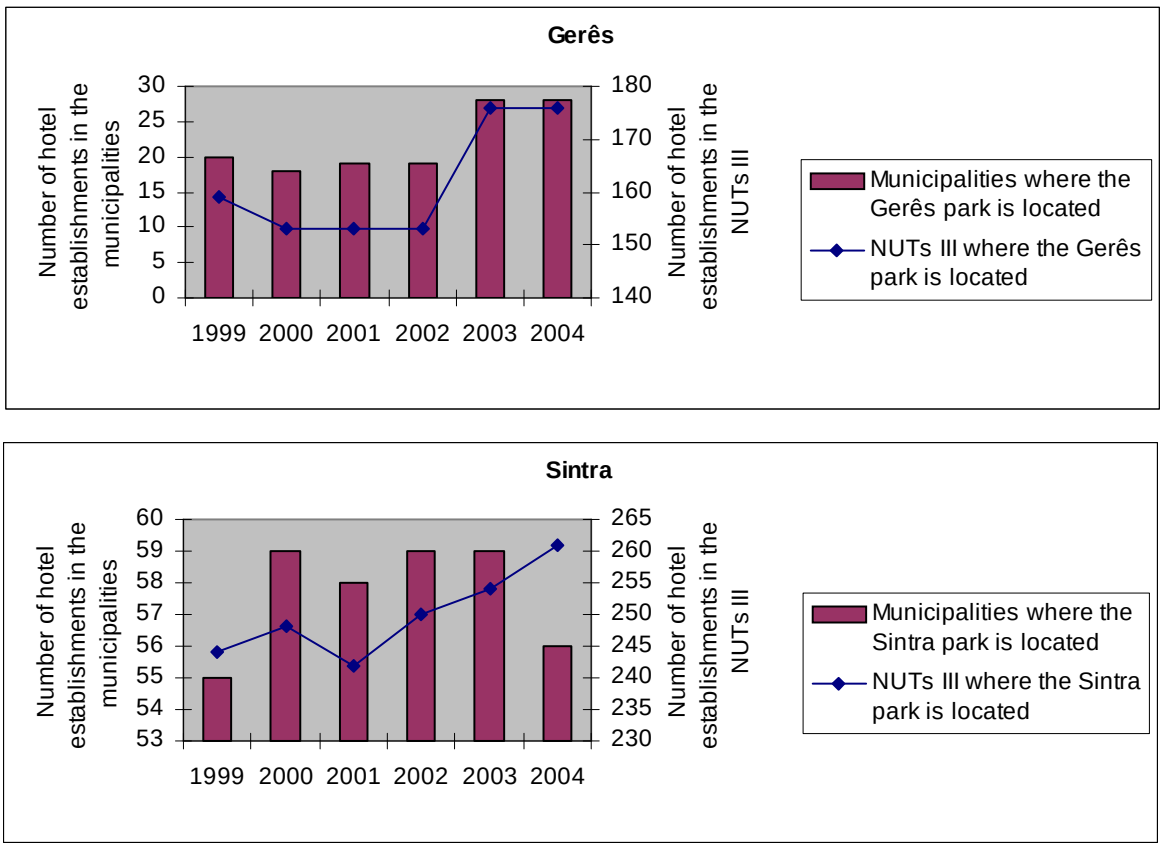
In the same year, the NUT III where the Sintra park is located – Grande Lisboa - had more hotel establishments (more 85) than the three NUTs III where the Gerês Park is located. These data show that there are more hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Sintra park and its neighbourhood, than, in the municipalities and neighbourhood of the Gerês park. Between 1999 and 2004, the number of hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Gerês national park rose more (40%) than the number of hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Sintra protected area (2%) (table 7.5. and figure 7.5.). Further, the number of hotel establishments in the municipalities of Gerês increased at a higher rate (40%) than that of the hotel establishments of the NUT III where these municipalities are located (11%). In contrast, the number of hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Sintra park increased at a lower rate (2%) than that of the Grande Lisboa (7%). This means that the increase of hotel establishments in the Grande Lisboa between 1999 and 2004 was primarily due to the increase of hotel establishments in municipalities of the Grande Lisboa other than Cascais and Sintra. The number of hotel establishments in Cascais has even suffered a slightly decline during this period (1 less establishment).

Table 7.5. – Evolution of number of hotel establishments of the two parks, between 1999 and 2004

		1999	2002	2004		Evolution 1999-2004
				N	%	
Gerês National Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**					
	Minho-Lima	46	42	58	32.95%	26.09%
	Cávado	57	53	60	34.09%	5.26%
	Alto Trás-os-Montes	56	58	58	32.95%	3.57%
	Total	159	153	176	100.00%	10.69%
	Municipalities where the park is located					
	Arcos de Valdevez	3	2	3	10.71%	0.00%
	Melgaço	1	1	2	7.14%	100.00%
	Ponte da Barca	1	1	4	14.29%	300.00%
	Terras de Bouro	14	12	16	57.14%	14.29%
	Montalegre	1	3	3	10.71%	200.00%
	Total	20	19	28	100.00%	40.00%
Sintra Natural Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**					
	Grande Lisboa	244	250	261	100.00%	6.97%
	Municipalities where the park is located					
	Cascais	39	42	38	67.86%	-2.56%
	Sintra	16	17	18	32.14%	12.50%
	Total	55	59	56	100.00%	1.82%

Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

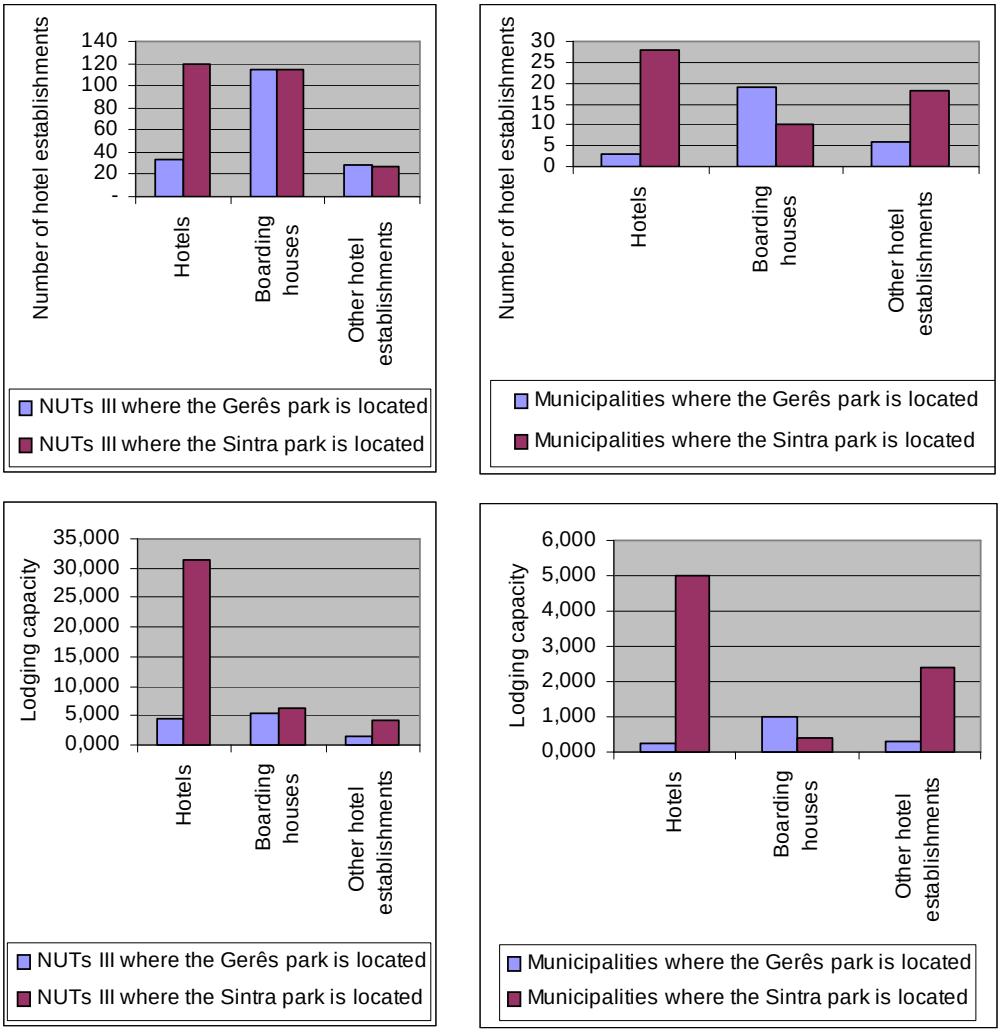
Figure 7.5. – Evolution of number of hotel establishments of the two parks, in 2004



Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

Observing again the data about the number of hotel establishments in 2004 (table 7.4. and figure 7.6.), boarding houses represent 68% of the hotel establishments in the municipalities in Gerês park and comprise 65% of the lodging capacity of these establishments. Hotels represent 50% of the hotel establishments in the municipalities in Sintra park, encompassing 64% of their lodging capacity. This situation is similar when the global area of the NUTs III of the parks is taken into account. The municipalities in Gerês park have many fewer hotels – only three – than the municipalities in Sintra park where there are 28 hotels. Additionally, the hotels in municipalities in Gerês park are concentrated in one municipality - Terras de Bouro. These data reveal that whereas in the Sintra park municipalities the hotels are the predominant kind of lodging establishment, in Gerês boarding houses are predominant. Thus, the accommodation that usually provides the widest range of services to guests, namely hotels, is more likely to be available in the Sintra park than in the Gerês park.

Figure 7.6. – Type of hotel establishments of the two parks, in 2004



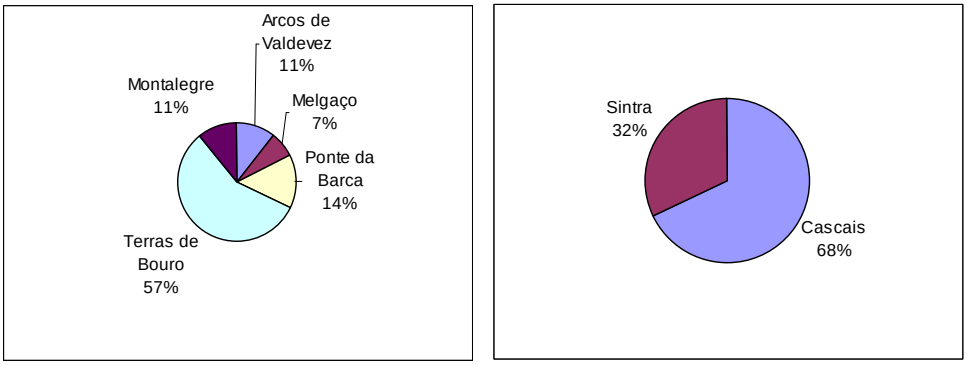
Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

In 2004, the municipality of Cascais contained about 68% of the hotel establishments of the Sintra park. Similarly, the municipality of Terras de Bouro encompassed about 57% of the hotel establishments in the Gerês park (figure 7.7.). Hence, in both parks there is a high concentration of hotels establishments in a single municipality.

Annually, hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Gerês park receive only 8% of the guests of the hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Sintra park (table 7.6.). Similarly, the hotel establishments of the NUTs III of Gerês park receive only 14% of the guests received by hotel establishments in the NUTs III of Sintra park. These data show

not only that the supply of hotels is much higher in the Sintra Park than in the Gerês park, but also that the number of guests at the hotel establishments in the Sintra park overwhelms those in the Gerês park.

Figure 7.7. – Proportion of hotel establishments of the two parks, by municipality, in 2004



Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

Table 7.6. – Guests and nights spent in the hotel establishments of the two parks, in 2004

		Nights				Guests			
		Total	Hotels	Boarding houses	Other	Total	Hotels	Boarding houses	Other
Gerês National Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Minho-Lima	267,909	118,118	94,133	55,658	147,132	65,488	46,284	35,360
	Cávado	420,412	277,136	100,468	42,808	207,259	137,960	45,891	23,408
	Alto Trás-os-Montes	246,121	98,012	116,037	32,072	144,120	46,305	79,152	18,663
	Total	934,442	493,266	310,638	130,538	498,511	249,753	171,327	77,431
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Arcos de Valdevez	§	-	§	-	§	-	§	-
	Melgaço	...	-	...	...	...	-	...	...
	Ponte da Barca	§	-	...	...	§	-	...	...
	Terras de Bouro	57,054	...	21,217	...	23,728	...	8,394	...
	Montalegre	15,124	-	-	15,124	7,709	-	-	7,709
	Total	72,178	-	21,217	15,124	31,437	-	8,394	7,709
Sintra Natural Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Grande Lisboa	6,446,137	5,020,504	817,130	608,503	2,822,205	2,299,847	335,107	187,251
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Cascais	1,066,074	668,500	18,111	379,463	335,264	225,614	8,710	100,940
	Sintra	165,775	134,089	12,002	19,684	73,568	55,809	7,048	10,711
	Total	1,231,849	802,589	30,113	399,147	408,832	281,423	15,758	111,651

Note: Data only covers the establishments classified by the General Directorate for Tourism.
§ - data with lesser quality (regions having less than 10 establishments where the value of nights spent was estimated for at least one establishment or to regions with 10 or more establishments where the declared number of nights is less than 70% of the total estimated nights)
... - confidential data

Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

Although there were fewer hotel establishments in the Gerês park than in the Sintra protected area, the number of establishments in the National park has increased since 1999, while those in Sintra have decreased. At the level of the NUTs III of the two parks, the number of nights spent in hotel establishments rose between 1999 and 2004, but at the level of municipalities this happened only in the Gerês park where this indicator increased almost as much as the number of hotel establishments (38%) (table 7.7. and figure 7.8.). Hence, in the Sintra park municipalities, the number of nights spent in these establishments slightly decreased, with a higher decrease in the municipality of Sintra.

Table 7.7. – Evolution of the nights spent in the hotel establishments of the two parks

		1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004		Evolution 1999-2004
							N	%	
Gerês National Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Minho-Lima	244,696	227,020	219,642	254,901	257,789	267,909	28.67%	9.49%
	Cávado	421,208	400,717	396,865	392,744	387,858	420,412	44.99%	0.19%
	Alto Trás-os-Montes	237,235	248,916	243,957	240,682	237,814	246,121	26.34%	3.75%
	Total	903,139	876,653	860,464	888,327	883,461	934,442	100.00%	3.47%
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Arcos de Valdevez	3,523	3,798	...	5,623	6,141	§		
	Melgaço	4,655	6,002	5,687	...	...	...		
	Ponte da Barca	...	67	...	§	5,169	§		
	Terras de Bouro	43,954	20,179	47,271	37,025	41,290	57,054	79.05%	29.80%
	Montalegre	...	5,648	...	15,294	14,036	15,124	20.95%	
	Total	52,132	35,694	52,958	57,942	66,636	72,178	100.00%	38.45%
Sintra Natural Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Grande Lisboa	5,831,602	6,235,107	5,991,108	5,972,771	5,912,048	6,446,137	100.00%	10.54%
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Cascais	1,080,257	1,185,060	1,233,054	1,126,655	1,064,277	1,066,074	86.54%	-1.31%
	Sintra	173,260	171,549	168,079	171,835	148,417	165,775	13.46%	-4.32%
	Total	1,253,517	1,356,609	1,401,133	1,298,490	1,212,694	1,231,849	100.00%	-1.73%

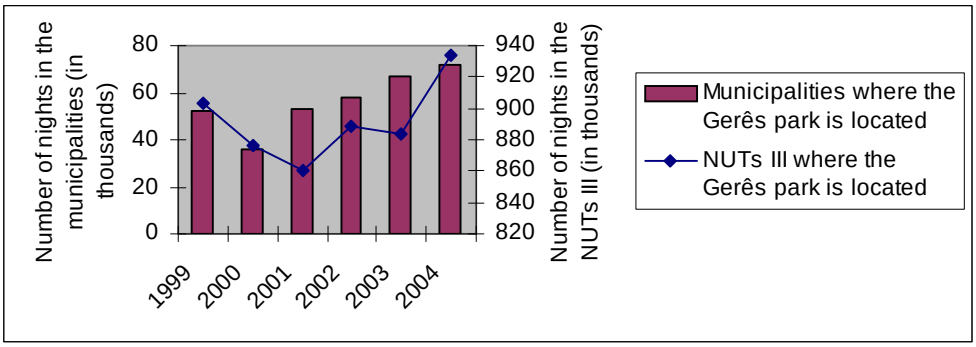
Note: Data only covers the establishments classified by the General Directorate for Tourism.
§ - data with lesser quality (regions having less than 10 establishments where the value of nights spent was estimated for at least one establishment or to regions with 10 or more establishments where the declared number of nights is less than 70% of the total estimated nights)
... - confidential data

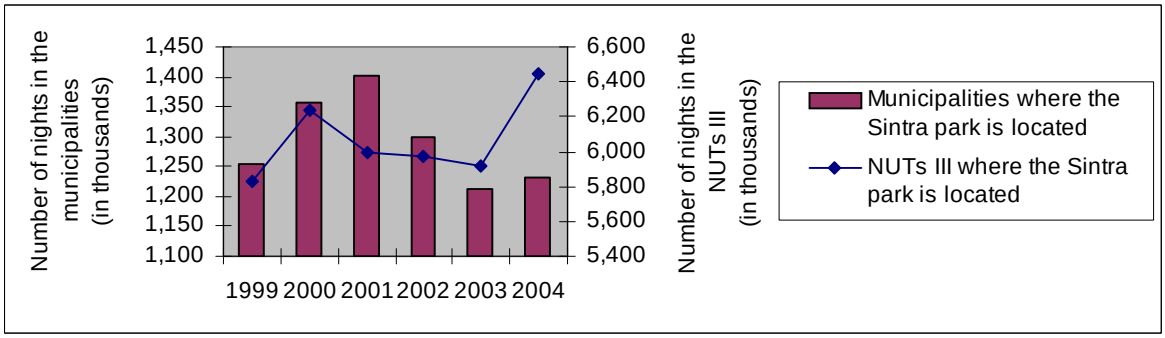
Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

There is a concentration of night stays in municipalities where there are more hotel establishments – Cascais and Terras de Bouro – that account for, respectively, 87% and

79% of the nights spent in hotel establishments in the municipalities of the park (table 7.7.).

Figure 7.8. – Evolution of the nights spent in the hotel establishments of the two parks





Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

Foreigners only account for 29% of the nights spent in hotel establishments of the NUTs III of the Gerês park, whereas they account for 74% of the nights spent in hotel establishments of the NUTs III of the Sintra park (table 7.8.). This may be a consequence of the ability of Lisbon to attract foreign people. When only the municipalities in the park are taken into account, this pattern is even more marked with foreigners accounting for 10% of the total number of nights spent in hotel establishments in Gerês and 80% of those spent in Sintra. This shows that Cascais and Sintra have remarkable power, much superior to that of the Gerês region, to attract foreigners. Spaniards are the most important foreign market of both parks, although they are more important in the Sintra park (representing more than 15% of the nights spent in hotel establishments) than in the Gerês region (representing fewer than 10% of the nights spent in hotel establishments). Other foreign countries account for less than a quarter of the nights spent in hotel establishments in Gerês, while in Sintra they represent 55% of the nights in hotel establishments. Besides

Spain, the most important markets in Sintra are the UK, Germany, France and Italy. In Gerês, it is difficult to identify the most important markets besides the Spanish.

Table 7.8. – Nights spent in the hotel establishments of the two parks, by country, in 2004

			Gerês				Sintra			
			NUTs III where the park is located		Municipalities where the park is located		NUTs III where the park is located		Municipalities where the park is located	
			N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grand total			934,442	100%	72,178	100%	6,446,137	100%	1,231,849	100%
Total EU 25			897,716	96%	71,710	99%	5,185,706	80%	1,052,106	85%
EU 15	Of which	Total	894,657	96%	71,705	99%	5,112,248	79%	103,0746	84%
		Portugal	664,169	71%	65,034	90%	1,677,965	26%	252,016	20%
		Germany	21,678	2%	1,082	1%	467,590	7%	85,747	7%
		Spain	84,551	9%	1,169	2%	1,000,909	16%	231,350	19%
		France	29,691	3%	248	0%	392,498	6%	63,325	5%
		Italy	13,093	1%	69	0%	380,380	6%	30,470	2%
		Netherlands	12,408	1%	468	1%	179,550	3%	52,554	4%
		UK	34,754	4%	638	1%	507,641	8%	165,829	13%
USA			7,541	1%	135	0%	309,483	5%	56,800	5%

Note: Data only covers the establishments classified by the General Directorate for Tourism.

Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

Care should be taken in interpreting these data since some visitors to the two parks may not be considered in these statistics, because: they spend the night in accommodations located outside the NUTs III of the parks; or they spend the night in accommodations other than hotel establishments (e.g. camping parks, rural tourism and house of friends and relatives) in the NUTs III of the parks. Additionally, the statistics here presented include people who are not visitors to the park (e.g. not all the people staying in hotel establishments in Grande Lisboa and, in the municipality of Cascais visited the Sintra park). Consequently, the data about hotel establishments presented in this section, provide insights into the market of the two protected areas under study but do not exactly mirror the demand at these parks. This issue will be further discussed in the next chapter.

After having analysed the supply and demand of hotel establishments at the two parks under study, an effort was made to find other facilities that supported parks tourism. The most recent data on rural tourism accommodation available by municipality are 2002. They

show that the NUTs III where the Gerês park is integrated have a considerable quantity of rural accommodation (table 7.9). This is mainly due to some municipalities – such as Ponte de Lima – that also belong to the NUT III Minho-Lima, and which are well known centres of concentration for rural tourism houses. Hence, whereas the NUT III of Sintra – Grande Lisboa – has 21 rural tourism houses, the NUTs III of the Gerês park have 6 times more than this number of houses. When specifically looking at the municipalities in the parks, the Sintra park has more rural tourism accommodation per municipality - an average of over 5 establishments -, compared to 5 in Gerês, and an average capacity of accommodation of over 70 people per municipality, compared to about 50 people per municipality in Gerês. The rural accommodation is concentrated in some municipalities such as Arcos de Valdevez, Ponte da Barca and Terras de Bouro – in the case of Gerês - and Sintra – in the case of the Natural park of Sintra.

7.9. – Rural tourism accommodation in the parks in 2002

		Establishments						Total of bedrooms	Total accommodation capacity
		Total	*Turismo rural*	*Turismo de habitação*	Agro-tourism	Country houses	Village tourism		
Gerês National Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Minho-Lima	114	47	44	16	7	-	565	1,116
	Cávado	45	25	10	6	4	-	226	447
	Alto Trás-os-Montes	28	18	3	5	2	-	152	303
	Total	187	90	57	27	13	0	943	1,866
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Arcos de Valdevez	11	3	5	3	-	-	60	117
	Melgaço	1	-	1	-	-	-	4	8
	Ponte da Barca	6	-	3	1	2	-	25	50
	Terras de Bouro	5	4	-	1	-	-	29	58
	Montalegre	2	1	-	-	1	-	9	18
	Total	25	8	9	5	3	0	127	251
Sintra Natural Park	**NUTs III where the park is located**								
	Grande Lisboa	21	9	11	1	-	-	117	233
	Municipalities where the park is located								
	Cascais	2	-	2	-	-	-	13	26
	Sintra	12	5	7	-	-	-	65	130
	Total	14	5	9	0	0	0	78	156

Source: Elaborated based on INE (2006)

The predominant kinds of accommodation in both parks are the *turismo rural* and the *turismo de habitação*, but there is a higher diversity of types of accommodation in the municipalities of Gerês where there are 5 agro-tourism houses and 3 country houses. The Gerês park has 4 camping sites, double those that exist in the Sintra park (ICN, 2005).

Although in the area of the Sintra park it is possible to find some facilities for nature tourism such as an interpretation centre, a nature shop and 2 picnic parks, in the area of the Gerês park there is a higher quantity of these facilities and there are also some ecomuseum nucleus (table 7.10.). Whereas the Gerês park has 11 nature tourism houses, the Sintra park does not have any of this kind of accommodations. Thus, although the Sintra park has more hotel establishments than the Gerês park, the opposite occurs in relation to nature tourism facilities

.

Table 7.10. – Facilities concerning the nature tourism

		National park of Gerês	Natural park of Sintra
Accommodation facilities	*Centro de acolhimento*	1	0
	Casa-abrigo	4	0
	Casa-retiro	6	0
Animation facilities	Nature shop	8	1
	Interpretation centre	4	1
	Picnic parks	16	2
	Ecomuseum nucleus	3	0

Source: Elaborated based on ICN (2005)

7.4. CONCLUSION

The importance of ecotourism and the growing relevance assigned to this tourism product led to a decision to conduct the empirical study in two protected areas that have been considered appropriated for ecotourism. The selection of two protected areas to conduct the study was based on criteria important for the thesis (such as the two areas having different characteristics in order to enable hypotheses to be tested with two different groups of people). The national parks and natural parks were considered to be the protected

areas most adequate for conducting the study. The Peneda-Gerês National Park was selected given that it was the only national park in Portugal. The Sintra-Cascais Natural Park was selected primarily because of the characteristics that differentiated it from the Gerês Park, namely the location, the composition of the market and types of attractions within it.

The two areas are characterised by a high diversity of fauna and flora and a considerable number of autochthon and threatened species. The natural heritage of the parks is also attested by international organisations that have designated the classification of places of these parks as important sites in terms of nature.

In terms of cultural heritage, the two municipalities in Sintra park had more classified architectonic heritage than the municipalities of Gerês park. The classified architectonic heritage of Sintra is mainly characterised by exemplars of civil and military structures, namely palaces and forts. Although the Sintra park had more classified architectonic heritage, the Gerês Park could seem to be more important than this park in terms of architectonic heritage, given that it possessed more national monuments. However, a majority of the classified heritage of the Gerês park is religious heritage and other kinds of heritage (e.g. castles) that do not have such high power for attracting visitors as the architectonic attractions of Sintra – the three national palaces of Pena, Sintra and Queluz are among the most visited monuments in Portugal. The quantity of classified heritage existing in the Sintra park and its power for attracting visitors make the Sintra park a remarkable site in terms of its architectural heritage compared to the Gerês park. Additionally, the municipalities of the Sintra park have more museums than those in the Gerês park. These museums received more than 900,000 visitors annually. Attesting to the value of Sintra in terms of cultural heritage, is its classification by the UNESCO, as a world heritage site. Thus, the Sintra park is a protected area of outstanding value in terms of cultural heritage. The Gerês has a cultural heritage of castles and churches, but does not have an attraction power as high as that of the Sintra Park.

In terms of accommodation, the Sintra park has many more hotel establishments than the Gerês park. The difference between the parks is further accentuated when the lodging

capacity of the two parks is compared. The two protected areas also differ in kind of hotel establishments. In the Sintra park a majority of hotel establishments are hotels, whereas most of the hotel establishments in Gerês are boarding houses. A common characteristic of the parks is that the accommodation tends to be concentrated in one municipality. One negative feature of Gerês is that all the hotels of the park are located in the same municipality – Terras de Bouro.

The difference between the two parks regarding the hotel establishments is even more accentuated when analysing demand. The Sintra park not only accounts for more nights spent in hotel establishments, but also has more power to attract foreigners than the Gerês park. Although in both parks the prevalent markets is Portuguese and Spanish, the other foreign markets represent only a very small portion of the guest at hotel establishments in the Gerês Park, while in the Sintra park they represent more than 50% of guests.

The supply of hotel establishments is complemented in both parks by other types of accommodation such as rural tourism, camping sites and nature houses. Whereas hotel establishments are predominant in the Sintra park, the opposite happens with camping sites and nature houses.

CHAPTER 8 – STUDY METHODOLOGY

8.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter explains how the study methodology evolved. It begins with a description of the exploratory study undertaken to identify items to include on the questionnaire administered in the final study. The elements on the questionnaire are described. The sampling procedure is explained. Finally, it is explained how the variables used in the empirical study were operationalized.

8.2. EXPLORATORY STUDY

The main challenge in the development of a data collection instrument was to develop measures that enabled an assessment of the position of the destinations and of the information search process identified. Few scales existed to measure the constructs involved, and a large number of items were needed to measure each of the constructs. Thus, it was decided to carry out an exploratory study. The objective of the exploratory study was to develop scales that could be expeditiously and efficiently used by respondents to measure the following constructs:

- the attractions, facilities, ability to satisfy motivations, and constraints of the Portuguese protected areas respondents were visiting, and those of competing destinations;
- the sources consulted by respondents to obtain information about both Portuguese protected areas and competing destinations.

One of the objectives of the thesis was to understand how potential visitors compared many alternate destinations and selected one destination to visit. This was difficult given the wide range of alternate destinations that potential visitors could consider visiting. To develop instruments for measuring the constructs of interest, an exploratory study was

carried out. In the next section, the methodology adopted in this exploratory study is described.

8.2.1. Methods

An exploratory survey was undertaken with a sample of visitors to Portuguese protected areas. The first stage of the study was to develop instruments that included comprehensive sets of scale items to measure the constructs. The goal of the exploratory survey was both to reduce the number of items in the scales, and to add any items that were considered important by respondents which were not included in the initial instrument. Samples for the surveys were derived from two populations - visitors to Gerês National Park, and undergraduate students at two Portuguese universities, Aveiro and Minho. Gerês was selected because it was the protected area in Portugal that has the most visitors (ICN, 2001[1]). It was decided to collect data from university students because a larger sample was needed, and financial and time constraints precluded more on-site surveying. In addition, young people have been identified as an important market segment for ecotourism (Wight, 2001). The study was conducted at the Universities of Aveiro and Minho, because teachers at these Universities agreed to cooperate and facilitated access to their students. The exploratory study was carried out at the Gerês park in 2001, from August to October, and at the Aveiro and Minho Universities during October 2001. The questionnaires administered to students at Aveiro and Minho Universities were filled out by the respondents. However, the questionnaires administered to visitors to Gerês Park were completed by the interviewer, since it was difficult to persuade visitors who were walking through Gerês to sit down and complete the questionnaire themselves.

Convenience samples were used both on-site at Gerês, and at the two universities. At the universities the questionnaire was distributed to undergraduate students pursuing several different degrees in an effort to diversify the sample. At Gerês, a decision was made to

[1] The data referred to respondents who used nature houses, participated in guided tours through the protected area, and who approached facilities of the protected areas.

interview only one person from each travel group, since it was thought that responses of members within a travel group would be similar.

The large number of items included in the initial construct measures made them unwieldy, so it was unrealistic to expect respondents to complete them all in a single instrument. Hence, three questionnaires were developed (Appendix 1). All three questionnaires contained three sections: (i) identification of the protected areas visited by respondents and of their competing destinations; (ii) measurement of variables related to the positioning of the destinations and the kind of information sources consulted; and (iii) identification of respondents' personal data. The first and third sections of the three instruments were identical, but the questionnaires differed on the constructs that they measured in the second section:

- questionnaire A measured motivations;
- questionnaire B measured attractions and facilities;
- questionnaire C measured constraints and information sources.

8.2.1.1. Section one of the questionnaires

The first section of each questionnaire began with respondents identifying the protected area they visited. In the case of students, they were required to choose a Portuguese protected area that they had visited in the previous 12 months from a map on which these areas were delineated. Next, there was a group of questions designed to ensure that respondents met the requirements for qualifying for inclusion in the sample (travelling for leisure purposes and spending at least a night away from their usual place of residence). Thus, respondents were requested to indicate their reasons for travelling from a set of travel categories provided by the WTO (1995). Then, visitors had to list the number of nights they spent in places different from their usual place of residence, and, specifically, in the protected area they visited.

Only those who had visited a protected area in the previous 12 months for leisure, recreation and/or holiday purposes, and who stayed at least one night away from their usual place of residence, were included in the sample and asked to proceed and complete the rest of the questionnaire. All others were screened out of the exploratory study at that point.

To identify competing destinations of the protected area being visited, two alternative approaches were used. Approximately half of the respondents were asked to remember the period before visiting the protected area, and to recall the alternate destinations to which they thought about going during that period. The remaining respondents were asked to list the destinations they would have considered visiting if they had not visited the protected area they chose. Although the first method was considered the more appropriate for eliciting consideration sets, the second method was used to obtain a wider range of potential competing destinations to the protected areas visited by respondents. A sub-objective was to empirically examine the methodological issue of whether, in cases where respondents completed the questionnaires themselves, the number of competing destinations considered would be influenced by the kind of answer space available. To accomplish this sub-objective, approximately half of the students in the sample were requested to write the names of competing destinations in a space which contained ten lines, whereas the other half did it in a similarly sized space containing no lines.

The final goal of the first section of the questionnaires was to identify both the strongest and weakest competitors of the protected area visited by respondents. The strongest competitor would correspond to a destination that belonged to the respondents' late consideration set, but which had not been chosen as a place to visit. The weakest competitor would correspond to a destination that belonged to the respondents' initial consideration set, but had not been included in the late consideration set. To elicit this information, respondents were asked to consider the competing destinations they had mentioned, and indicate which of them they would most likely have visited and which they were least likely to visit if they had not made a decision to go to the protected area they selected. The first of these destinations was labelled the "strongest competitor", while the second was labelled the "weakest competitor".

8.2.1.2. Section two of the questionnaires

The objective in the second section of the questionnaires, was to substantially reduce the number of items used to measure variables related to the positioning of destinations and kind of information sources consulted. The questions in this section were designed to establish the content validity of more parsimonious measures of the constructs. This was done by: (i) evaluating if the scales were sufficiently comprehensive to measure the positioning of protected areas and competing destinations, and to identify the kind of information sources consulted; and (ii) identifying the items in each scale that were most effective for measuring these constructs in the context of this study.

The goal was to establish content validity in the context of: (i) the protected area visited by respondents; (ii) the destination identified as its strongest competitor; and (iii) the destination identified as its weakest competitor. Both closed and open questions were used to accomplish this objective. Three different questionnaires (A, B and C) were developed, each designed to measure different constructs.

Questionnaire A focused on motivations. The literature review in chapter 4 identified the following set of motivations: relaxation, novelty, escape, socialization, broadening the mind, freedom, discovering the self, happiness, prestige/social recognition, regression, competence/mastery, using the equipment and talking about it (see section 4.3.1.). A large number of items was developed to represent the dimensions of each of these motivations. The majority of items were extracted from motivation scales developed in previous empirical studies. The number of items included to measure each dimension was related to the number of studies that included the dimension, so the dimensions included in most studies were represented by more items than those included in fewer studies. This process also was followed in developing the items used to measure the constructs in Questionnaires B and C. The list of motivation items developed is shown in table 8.1..

Table 8.1. - The motivation items shown to respondents on Questionnaire A

A – have an experience that involves thrills, taking risks [3]

B - learn about things, expand my knowledge [2]

C – experience peace and calm, be away from crowds [2] [4]

D – opportunity to behave like when I was younger [1]

E - lead other people and teach my skills to others [4]

F – experience and explore new things, change to a different environment [3]

G – learn more about myself [4]

H - interact with local people [1] [4]

I - view the scenery, be close to nature [4]

J – avoid everyday responsibilities, relax mentally [2] [4]

K – have an experience that involves surprise [3]

L - use equipment and talk about it [4]

M - meet new people [1] [2] [4]

N - visit historical sites, museums, or attend cultural events [5]

O - do something creative [2] [4]

P – be free to make my own choices, control things [4]

Q - reflect on past memories and think about good times I have had [4]

R – rest [2] [4]

S - see and experience a particular place [1]

T - be with my friends, develop close friendships [1] [2] [4]

U - develop my physical abilities, keep in shape physically [1] [2]

V – boredom alleviation [3]

X - bring the family close together, enhance family relationships [1] [4]

Z - gain others' respect, have others know that I have been here [1] [4]

Note: [1] adapted from Crompton (1979); [2] adapted from Beard and Ragheb (1983); [3] adapted from Lee and Crompton (1992); [4] adapted from Manfredo *et al.* (1996); [5] adapted from Crompton and McKay (1997).

Before being presented with this closed list of items, respondents were requested to indicate in an open-ended question, the benefits they received from visiting the protected area they chose and the benefits they would have obtained if they had visited the

destinations they identified as strongest and weakest competitors. The list of motivation items in table 8.1. was then presented to respondents, and for each of the three destinations - protected area visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor – they were requested to list the three most important benefits they obtained or would have obtained from visiting the three destinations, in addition to those they cited in the open-ended question.

Questionnaire B focused on (i) attractions; and (ii) facilities designed to support tourism. In developing the list of attraction items, the objective was to create a range of items that would encompass the main categories of attractions found in the literature review which would comprehensively represent the set of attractions found in protected areas and competing destinations. This list was created in order to incorporate the several types of attractions identified in the literature review previously carried out (see section 4.3.2.). The majority of the items were extracted from Echtner and Ritchie's study (1993), which provides a set of attributes for measuring tourism destination images that was developed from both a literature review and focus groups. Given that this set of attributes was created for assessing destination images of all types of destinations, and to ensure that the list developed would apply to destinations in the context of this study, items from two papers that addressed protected areas were also analyzed (Kim, 1998; Ryan and Sterling, 2001). One of the purposes was to include the attractions that were frequently referenced in studies on the positioning of destinations (see figure 4.3.). Since natural attractions – one of the attractions more widely cited in the literature – were especially important in the context of this study, it was decided not to include in the list a global item of natural attractions, but to include items that represented specific natural attractions (e.g. rivers and lakes, fauna and flora). Some of these items were selected from the inventory of attractions provided by Inskeep (1991). The list of attraction items is shown in table 8.2..

A similar procedure was followed to develop a list of facilities that support tourism. The literature review suggested that the facilities most frequently considered as important facilities to support tourism comprise those related to the following features: accommodation, eating and drinking facilities, accessibility, tourist information, cleanliness, service quality, personal safety and children facilities/family oriented facilities) (see section 4.3.2.). As with attractions, one of the aims was to include facilities

that had been frequently referenced in studies on the positioning of destinations. In the creation of a list of facilities, again, a majority of items was selected from the lists provided by Echtner and Ritchie (1993), Kim (1998) and Ryan and Sterling (2001). The item "signage" was added to the list because, although it was not explicitly considered in the previous studies that measured accessibility as a whole, it was decided this item may be important in the context of this study. The list of items associated with facilities is shown in table 8.3..

Table 8.2. - The attraction items shown to respondents on Questionnaire B

A – Climate [2] [5]
B - Cultural events [2] [5]
C - Familiar atmosphere [2]
D - Museums [2]
E - Walking trails [4]
F - Scenery [2] [5]
G - Architecture/buildings [2]
H - Customs and culture [2] [5]
I - Hospitality of local people [2] [5]
J - Exotic atmosphere [2]
L - Historic sites [2] [5]
M - Opportunities for experiencing new and different lifestyle [3]
N - Flora and fauna [1]
O - Local cuisine (gastronomy) [2] [5]
P – Rivers and lakes [1]
Q - Unpolluted environment [3]
R - Shopping facilities [2] [5]
S - Beaches [2] [5]
T - Nightlife and entertainment [2] [5]

Note: [1] adapted from Inskeep (1991); [2] adapted from Echtner and Ritchie (1993); [3] adapted from Kim (1998); [4] adapted from Ryan and Sterling (2001); [5] attractions frequently cited in the positioning studies carried out until the exploratory study (see figure 4.3.).

Table 8.3. - The facilities items shown to respondents on Questionnaire B

A - Facilities for providing information [(1)]

B - Quality of accommodations [(1) (4)]

C - Car parking [(3)]

D - Food outlets [(1) (4)]

E - Toilets [(3)]

F - Local public transportation services [(1) (4)]

G - Camping areas [(3)]

H - Quality of service by staff [(1)]

I – Safety [(1) (4)]

J - Signage

L - Availability of accommodations [(2) (4)]

M - Cooking facilities [(3)]

N – Cleanliness [(1) (4)]

O – The destination's accessibility [(1) (4)]

P - Children's facilities [(3)]

Note: [(1)] adapted from Echtner and Ritchie (1993); [(2)] adapted from Kim (1998); [(3)] adapted from Ryan and Sterling (2001); [(4)] facilities frequently cited in the positioning studies carried out until the exploratory study (see figure 4.3.).

The survey procedures for attractions were similar to those adopted for motivations. In the first three open-ended questions, respondents were requested to identify the features they found to be most attractive at each of the three destinations – protected area visited, strongest and weakest competitors. Respondents were then shown the list of attractions on table 8.2. and, for each of the three destinations, were requested to list three features that they had not previously mentioned, which they considered to be attractive features of that destination.

For the facilities section of questionnaire B, it was decided not to include open-ended questions because it was thought respondents were likely to have difficulty in identifying these kinds of dimensions. Hence, respondents were shown only the list of features concerning facilities (table 8.3.) and were requested to select the three most positive and the three most negative facilities associated with each of the three destinations. Again, this list was built based on the literature review carried out in chapter 4 (see section 4.3.2.).

Questionnaire C involved constraints and information sources. Again, a list of constraint dimensions was identified from the literature review undertaken in sections 4.4.2. and 4.4.3.. It consisted of: value for money, time, accessibility, security, effort involved in planning, climate, and factors that were responsible for the lack of attractiveness of a destination in a specific context. The aim was to obtain a comprehensive list of travel constraints experienced by people wanting to travel to Portuguese protected areas or to their competing destinations. Only one item not found in other studies was included in the list – difficulties in finding accommodation. This was recognized as a possible particular problem in the context of both Portuguese protected areas and some of their competing destinations. The list of constraints presented to respondents is shown in table 8.4..

The second focus of Questionnaire C was to create a comprehensive set of sources that may be used to obtain information about Portuguese protected areas and their competing destinations. Again, the initial list encompassed the major categories of information sources found in the literature review. Items were extracted from empirical studies that had been carried out on information search (see section 4.5.1.). Information sources not reported in the literature but considered important by the researchers in the context of this study were added. These items were: companies that organize activities or manage an attraction in the destination area; accommodations on site; transportation companies; associations; and consumer reports. The list developed is shown in table 8.5..

For the open-ended questions, respondents were requested to state obstacles they had to overcome when planning the trip to the protected area visited, as well as those they would have had to consider if they had visited the strongest and weakest competitors. When subsequently presented with the list of constraints on table 8.5., respondents selected three

obstacles associated with a visit to each of these destinations that they did not reference in the open-ended questions.

Table 8.4. - The constraint items shown to respondents on Questionnaire C

A - Travel to this destination was expensive [3]

B - This destination is too far away from where you live [3]

C - Too much planning involved [4]

D - You didn't have enough money [2] [4]

E - Concern about health [3]

F –Difficult to find enough time to go [2] [3] [4]

G – The weather there was too cold

H - Too much hassle buying or renting equipment [4]

I - Fear of travelling so far [3]

J - Equipment needed is too expensive [4]

L - Too busy [2] [4]

M - The attractions at this destination are expensive [3]

N - Difficulties in finding accommodations available

O - Fear of crime there [3]

P - This destination was too crowded [4]

Q - The accommodations on site are expensive [3]

R - It's not easy to get there [2]

S – The weather there was too hot [1]

Note: [1] adapted from Stemerding *et al.* (1999); [2] adapted from Tian *et al.* (1996); [3] adapted from Botha *et al.* (1999); [4] adapted from Hudson (2000).

The same procedure was followed on the information sources section of questionnaire C, with respondents initially freely mentioning the sources they had consulted to obtain information from the three destinations being analyzed. After that, they selected three information sources not previously referenced, but that they had also consulted, from the list of information sources given them, for each of the three destinations.

Table 8.5. - The information source items shown to respondents on Questionnaire C

A - Friends [1] [2]

B - Travel agents [1] [2]

C - Travel guides [1] [2]

D - Companies that organize activities or manage an attraction in this area

E - TV/radio ads [1]

F - Accommodations on site

G - Transportation companies

H - Newspaper/ magazine advertisements [1] [2]

I – Relatives [1] [2]

J – Brochures [1] [2]

L - Associations

M - Books, newspaper/magazine articles [2]

N - Public tourism organizations / tourism offices [1] [2]

O - Consumer reports

Note: [1] adapted from Gitelson and Crompton (1983); [2] adapted from Fodness and Murray (1998).

To identify the importance of the internet in the search for information about protected areas visited and their competing destinations, a set of questions about the use of the internet was included on questionnaire C. First, respondents were asked whether any information they acquired about the three areas they identified had been obtained through the internet. Those who responded affirmatively were asked to indicate the importance of that information on a 5-point Likert-type scale (from 1=not important to 5=very important), and to mention the information sources that they consulted through the internet.

8.2.1.3. Section three of the questionnaires

Finally, in the third section of all three questionnaires, respondents were asked to indicate selected personal data such as their age, gender, education level (in terms of highest grade completed), and country of residence. Respondents living in Portugal also listed the municipality where they lived.

8.2.2. Analysis of the results

The exploratory study data were analyzed using SPSS. Of the 247 completed questionnaires obtained, 89 responded to questionnaire A, 86 to B and 72 to C. Approximately half of the questionnaires were administered at Gerês Park (42%), with the remainder being administered at the two universities. At Gerês, a majority of the questionnaires were administered in August and September, with only a few in the period between October and December.

8.2.2.1. Analysis of data in sections one and three of the questionnaires

A summary of respondents' demographic profiles is shown in table 8.6. The mean age of respondents was relatively low (27 years old), reflecting the use of university students for half of the sample. There was almost an equal distribution of gender of respondents. A large majority of respondents were Portuguese (90%) with relatively high academic abilities (90% had completed, at least high school, again reflecting that over half of the sample were university students).

Respondents stated that they spent, on median average, three nights away from their usual place of residence, with a median of two of them being spent at the protected area visited[2].

[2] Median was used to report the number of nights away from home and at the protected area, because of the high standard variation of these variables.

A majority of visits to the protected areas (66%) occurred in August and September, reflecting the time the Gerês sample were interviewed.

Table 8.6. – Demographic profile of respondents

Variable	At Gerês N=104	At university N=143	Total N=247
Age (mean)	33 years old (N=102)	22 years old (N=142)	27 years old (N=244)
Gender	Female 46% Male 54% (N=102)	Female 52% Male 48% (N=143)	Female 49% Male 51% (N=245)
Country of residence	Portugal 78% Foreign country 22% (N=102)	Portugal 100% Foreign country 0% (N=143)	Portugal 90% Foreign country 10% (N=245)
Academic abilities	Elementary or Junior High School 24% High School 29% College 47% (N=102)	Elementary or Junior High School 0% High School 94% College 6% (N=141)	Elementary or Junior High School 10% High School 67% College 23% (N=243)

Students had visited several different protected areas, with the most frequently visited being: Gerês (visited by 23% of them); Serra da Estrela (22%); Sintra-Cascais (11%); Dunas de S. Jacinto (7.7%); and Sudoeste Alentejano e Costa Vicentina (6%).

Most respondents had very small initial consideration sets, since 31% of them mentioned fewer than two competing destinations, while 57% identified two to four, and only 12% referred to more than four competing destinations. To perform chi-square analysis, in order to analyze whether the number of competing destinations considered was influenced by any factor, respondents were grouped according to the number of competing destinations mentioned, in three different sets: (i) did not mention any destination; (ii) mentioned one or two destinations; and (iii) mentioned three or more destinations. The number of competing destinations identified was influenced by several factors. Those that were most influential were: (i) the method used for identifying these destinations and, (ii) the place where the

questionnaire was administered. As far as the first feature is concerned, chi-square tests revealed significant differences between the number of competing destinations which respondents reported they had previously thought about, and the number of destinations they would consider visiting if they did not visit the area chosen (table 8.7.). Respondents reporting competing destinations they had previously thought about were over represented in the group of respondents who did not consider any competing destination, and under represented in the set of respondents who mentioned more competing destinations (three or more). In contrast, respondents mentioning all the destinations they would consider visiting were over represented in the group of respondents who referenced more competing destinations, and under represented in the set of respondents who did not mention any destination (table 8.7.).

Table 8.7. – Analysis of the association between the number of competing destinations considered and the methods used for identifying competing destinations (entire sample considered)

		Method used for identifying competing destinations					
		Destinations respondents had thought about		Destinations respondents would consider visiting if destination chosen had not been visited		Total	
Number of competing destinations considered	zero	41	31.06	7	6.09	48	19.43
	one to two	50	37.88	43	37.39	93	37.65
	three or more	41	31.06	65	56.52	106	42.91
	Total	132	100.00	115	100.00	247	100.00

Note: Pearson Chi-Square = 29.012; 2 df; Assymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.000; 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 22.35.

Similar results were obtained from both the entire sample and the on-site sample visitors at Gerês (table 8.8).

There were also significant differences in the number of competing destinations mentioned by visitors to Gerês and by students (table 8.9.). As table 8.9. shows, visitors to Gerês were over represented in the set of respondents who did not consider any competing destination, and under represented in the group of respondents who mentioned more competing destinations (three or more). In contrast, students were under represented in the set of

respondents who did not mention any destination, and over represented in the group of respondents who referenced more competing destinations.

Table 8.8. – Analysis of the association between the number of competing destinations considered and the methods used for identifying competing destinations (only visitors to Gerês considered)

		Method used for identifying competing destinations					
		Destinations respondents had thought about		Destinations respondents would consider visiting if destination chosen had not been visited		Total	
Number of competing destinations considered	zero	21	35.00	4	9.09	25	24.04
	one to two	27	45.00	27	61.36	54	51.92
	three or more	12	20.00	13	29.55	25	24.04
	Total	60	100.00	44	100.00	104	100.00

Note: Pearson Chi-Square = 9.36; 2 df; Assymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.009; 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 10.58.

Table 8.9. – Analysis of the association between the number of competing destinations considered and the area where the questionnaire was administered (entire sample considered)

		Areas where the questionnaire was administered					
		On site		At university		Total	
Number of competing destinations considered	zero	25	24.04	23	16.08	48	19.43
	one to two	54	51.92	39	27.27	93	37.65
	three or more	25	24.04	81	56.64	106	49.91
	Total	104	100.00	143	100.00	247	100.00

Note: Pearson Chi-Square = 26.593; 2 df; Assymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.000; 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 20.21.

Similar findings were obtained from analyses of the entire sample and for the group of people asked to identify competing destinations they previously had thought about (table 8.10.). Reasons that led students to elicit larger initial consideration sets than visitors to Gerês may have included the greater amount of free time available to students, and their greater willingness to travel to expand knowledge and gain new experiences. The students may have relatively large initial consideration sets because they are not so selective in

choosing destinations that may satisfy them, due to their relatively limited experience with travelling.

Table 8.10. – Analysis of the association between the number of competing destinations considered and the area where the questionnaire was administered (only the respondents who mentioned the destinations they had previously thought about were considered)

		Areas where the questionnaire was administered					
		On site		At university		Total	
Number of competing destinations considered	zero	21	35.00	20	27.78	41	31.06
	one to two	27	45.00	23	31.94	50	37.88
	three or more	12	20.00	29	40.28	41	31.06
	Total	60	100.00	72	100.00	132	100.00

Note: Pearson Chi-Square = 6.355; 2 df; Assymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.042; 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 18.64.

Respondents were grouped according to their academic abilities into three categories: (i) Elementary or Junior High School; (ii) High School; and (iii) College or Graduate School. In the overall sample, academic ability appears to be related to the number of competing destinations considered (table 8.11.), but the relationship between these variables was not linear. The number of competing destinations considered seems to have an inverted-U relationship with the academic abilities of respondents. This suggest that respondents with low abilities are likely to have small initial consideration sets, perhaps because of the following: (i) having greater financial constraints than other respondents; (ii) not having developed an interest for travelling to a wide range of destinations or expanding their knowledge; or also (iii) because they do not know so many destinations due to low levels of literacy and experience with travelling. The group with medium academic abilities (those who completed high school) had larger initial consideration sets, perhaps because they had more free time, relatively willingness to expand their knowledge, and a desire to have new experiences and broaden their knowledge base. Respondents with high academic abilities had relatively small considerations sets, perhaps because of time constraints related to their jobs, or because they had specific interests related to travel due to relatively high experience with travelling. With regard to these latter interpretations, respondents

with high academic abilities may have developed an interest in visiting a small set of destinations, and had no interest in visiting others.

Table 8.11. – Analysis of the association between the number of competing destinations considered and the academic abilities (entire sample considered)

		Academic abilities							
		Elementary or Junior High School		High School		College or Graduate School		Total	
Number of competing destinations considered	zero	5	20.83	29	17.90	13	22.81	47	19.34
	one to two	14	58.33	50	30.86	28	49.12	92	37.86
	three or more	5	20.83	83	51.23	16	28.07	104	42.80
	Total	24	100.00	162	100.00	57	100.00	243	100.00

Note: Pearson Chi-Square = 15.505; 4 df; Assymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.004; 0 cells (11.1%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.64.

Country of residence had an impact on size of initial consideration sets, with more destinations being mentioned by foreigners than by Portuguese (table 8.12.). This effect was not present when the entire sample was considered, but only in the sample of Gerês visitors.

Table 8.12. – Analysis of the association between the number of competing destinations considered and the country of residence (only visitors to Gerês considered)

		Country of residence					
		Portugal		Foreign country		Total	
Number of competing destinations considered	zero	23	28.40	2	8.70	25	24.04
	one to two	43	53.09	11	47.83	54	51.92
	three or more	15	18.52	10	43.48	25	24.04
	Total	81	100.00	23	100.00	104	100.00

Note: Pearson Chi-Square = 7.630; 2 df; Assymp. Sig. (2-sided) = 0.022; 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.53.

Foreign visitors may have larger initial consideration sets because they were likely to travel a larger distance compared to Portuguese residents, which encouraged them to consider visiting more destinations. In addition, because of the relatively large size of their monetary investment, they may spend more time thinking about where to go and consider more places than Portuguese citizens. Some of the Portuguese may have very small consideration sets, because of their high level of familiarity with Gerês, which precludes them considering travelling to other destinations.

Respondents were grouped into four categories according to the month when they visited the protected area: (i) January to March; (ii) April to June; (iii) July to September; and (iv) October to December. They were also grouped into three sets, according to duration of their stay away from their usual place of residence: (i) one night; (ii) two nights; (iii) more than two nights. For analyzing duration of stay in the protected area they were visiting, respondents were classified into three sets: (i) less than two nights; (ii) two nights; (iii) more than two nights. Finally, respondents were grouped into three age cohorts: (i) less than 25 years old; (ii) between 25 and 44 years old; and (iii) more than 44 years old. However, the number of competing destinations considered was not significantly influenced by any the following variables ($p>0.05$ in chi-square tests): (i) the type of space to answer (space with lines versus space without lines); (ii) the month when the visit took place; (iii) the duration of stay away from the usual place of residence; (iv) the duration of stay in the area visited; and (v) age.

The significant results of these chi-square analyses of the initial consideration sets of destinations are summarized in table 8.13..

Table 8.13. – The influence of several independent variables in the number of competing destinations mentioned (analyzed through Chi-square tests)

	Total sample	**Only the respondents who were asked to mention destinations they had previously thought about**	**Only visitors to Gerês**
Area where the questionnaire was administered	- Gerês + Universities	- Gerês + Universities	*
Respondents who mentioned destinations they had previously thought about vs. those who mentioned all competing destinations they would consider visiting if destination chosen had not been visited	- destinations previously thought about + destinations they would consider visiting	*	- destinations previously thought about + destinations they would consider visiting
academic abilities[3]	Non-linear relationship		
country of residence		*	+ Foreigners - Portuguese

Note: * the relationship was not analyzed;
spaces left blank – no significant relationship was found ($p>0.05$)
+ over representation in the group of respondents who mentioned more competing destinations (one to three) and under representation in the set of respondents who did not mention any competing destination
- over representation in the group of respondents who did not mention any competing destination and under representation in the set of respondents who mentioned more competing destinations (one to three)

8.2.2.2. Analysis of data in section two of the questionnaires

In the second sections of the questionnaires, similar analytical procedures were used on each of the five constructs measured on the three different questionnaires. Three experts in the field of tourism (individuals who were lecturers in tourism or having a degree in

[3] Respondents were grouped, according to their academic abilities, in three sets: (i) Elementary or Junior High School; (ii) High School; and (iii) College or Graduate School.

tourism) coded responses to the open questions. For each construct, experts were requested to associate each item listed in responses to the open questions, to one or more of the closed list of items developed for that variable. An agreement of at least two of the three judges was needed, before an item emerging from an open-ended question could be classified as a specific item on the closed item lists. The judges were advised that if the items could not be classified into any of the existing categories, they should create a new category. A decision rule was made to add to the closed lists, items that emerged from the open-ended questions that filled the following three conditions: (i) at least two judges agreed they should be included as new categories; (ii) were mentioned more than six times and (iii) were not included on the closed items list.

On all three questionnaires – A, B and C – the importance of each item was assessed in relation to the protected area visited, the strongest competitors and the weakest competitors. The criterion used for evaluating the importance of each item was the number of respondents who mentioned the item in relation to protected areas visited, strongest competitors or the weakest competitors. Analyses were conducted to identify if the importance of items differed according to the level of competitiveness of the destination area (area visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor), and sample responding to it (on-site or students).

On the motivations' instrument, a decision was made to exclude all items that were identified by fewer than 25 percent of respondents (table 8.14.). This means that the items excluded were not mentioned in either closed or open responses by at least 75 percent of respondents for any of the three kinds of destinations being analyzed - protected areas visited, strongest competitors and weakest competitors. Table 8.14. shows the results of analyses of the motivation items. The codes A to Z in table 8.14. are keyed in table 8.1. shown earlier in this chapter. The table shows that item B (learn about things, expand my knowledge) was listed, for at least one of the three destination alternatives, in closed or open questions (or in both of them) by 66 percent of the 89 respondents who reviewed the total list. The respondents of questionnaire A mentioned this item more frequently in responding to the open question (45%) than in the closed questions (39%). The total percentage of respondents who mentioned item B was not equal to the sum of the

percentage of the respondents who cited it in closed questions and of those who cited it in open questions, because some respondents (18%) cited it in their responses to both types of question. This item was mentioned more frequently by students (75%) than by visitors to Gerês (52%). Students cited this motivation item more frequently in open questions (57%) than in response to the closed question list (41%). In contrast, visitors to Gerês mentioned it more often in the closed questions (36%) than in the open question (24%).

Table 8.14. – The percentage of respondents who mentioned each motivation, according to the areas where the survey was carried out

		Closed question			Open question			Total		
		On Site N=33	At University N=56	Total N=89	On Site N=33	At University N=56	Total N=89	On Site N=33	At University N=56	Total N=89
1	A	9%	29%	21%	0%	0%	0%	9%	29%	21%
2	B	36	41	39	24	57	45	52	75	66
3	C	45	57	53	36	21	27	67	59	62
4	D	9	7	8	0	0	0	9	7	8
5	E	0	4	2	0	0	0	0	4	2
6	F	48	57	54	21	11	15	58	63	61
7	G	12	11	11	3	2	2	15	13	13
8	H	18	38	30	3	5	4	18	43	34
9	I	55	61	58	61	59	60	88	89	89
10	J	33	43	39	0	7	4	33	46	42
11	K	6	32	22	0	0	0	6	32	22
12	L	0	4	2	0	0	0	0	4	2
13	M	18	30	26	3	5	4	18	34	28
14	N	42	41	42	9	14	12	45	43	44
15	O	6	14	11	0	0	0	6	14	11
16	P	6	14	11	0	4	2	6	18	13
17	Q	15	7	10	0	0	0	15	7	10
18	R	36	34	35	73	50	58	85	64	72
19	S	30	36	34	9	25	19	33	54	46
20	T	12	25	20	6	18	13	15	38	29
21	U	12	13	12	9	11	10	21	21	21
22	V	6	11	9	0	4	2	3	14	10
23	X	9	16	13	6	13	10	9	21	17
24	Z	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	1

N - Number of respondents who answered the motivations' questionnaire.

In general, the items excluded (i.e. not attaining the 25% criterion) were mainly concerned with novelty, with socialization (family togetherness), or with dimensions that had been incorporated in relatively few of the previous empirical studies reported in chapter 4 (e.g. discovering self, regression, using the equipment, and talking about it).

The motivation items from the list that were retained were important both to students and visitors to Gerês (table 8.14.). The main differences between these groups in relation to these items, was that more students than visitors to Gerês appeared to be concerned with socialization (e.g. interact with local people, be with friends and develop close friendships) (table 8.14.).

Table 8.15. shows, for each motivation item, the percentage of respondents who cited it in the context of protected areas visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor. For example, item B (learn about things, expand my knowledge) was cited for the protected areas visited by 51 percent of respondents, for strongest competitors by 39 percent of the 75 respondents who identified a strong competitor, and for weakest competitors by 30 percent of the 61 respondents who identified weakest competitors. The analysis of these data showed that motivation item B was more important to respondents when they consider protected areas than for competing destinations. There appeared to be a general consensus among respondents that the motivations retained could be obtained by visiting the protected area they selected, or visiting either their strongest or weakest competitor. At the same time, there were large differences among the percentage of respondents who cited motivation items in some of these three areas (table 8.15.). These findings suggest that items on which large differences occurred may have been items on which those destinations achieved a distinctive position in relation to competitors and, in consequence, may correspond to items that played a major role in the selection of a destination to visit. Items on which differences were more pronounced were "meeting new people" (item M) and to "be with friends and develop close friendships" (item T). The former motive was reportedly more difficult to obtain when visiting protected areas than while visiting competing destinations, whereas the latter motive was considered more difficult to achieve when visiting the weakest competitors. It is possible that protected areas were considered good places to be with friends, but that other motivations (such as meeting new people) became more important when subjects planned to travel to competing destinations (table 8.15.).

Table 8.15. - The percentage of respondents who mentioned each motivation in the context of destination visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor

		Destination chosen N=89	Strongest competitor N=75	Weakest competitor N=61
1	A	8%	11%	11%
2	B	51	39	30
3	C	47	27	21
4	D	3	3	3
5	E	1	1	0
6	F	45	33	18
7	G	11	4	3
8	H	13	16	18
9	I	80	47	41
10	J	25	13	13
11	K	4	12	11
12	L	0	1	2
13	M	8	11	21
14	N	20	25	31
15	O	3	5	7
16	P	6	7	7
17	Q	2	8	3
18	R	56	32	34
19	S	18	23	23
20	T	19	16	7
21	U	11	11	16
22	V	3	5	3
23	X	10	11	7
24	Z	0	1	0

N - Number of destinations visited, strongest competitors or weakest competitors, considered by respondents who answered the motivations' questionnaire.

No motivations were added to the list because the motivations that emerged from responses to the open questions were related to features already included in the attractions' list (gastronomy, climate, destination being a preserved place), in the facilities list (restaurants) or in the constraints' list (destination being close to the place of residence). The list of motivation items retained is shown in table 8.16..

Table 8.16. – The list of motivation items remaining after excluding less important items

- learn about things, expand my knowledge
- visit historical sites, museums, or attend cultural events
- see and experience a particular place
- experience peace and calm, be away from crowds
- rest
- experience and explore new things, change to a different environment
- view the scenery, be close to nature
- interact with local people
- meet new people
- be with my friends, develop close friendships
- avoid everyday responsibilities, relax mentally

After reviewing the findings concerning the attractions items (table 8.17.), it was decided to apply the same decision rule used with motivations and to exclude all items that were referenced by fewer than 25 percent of respondents. The five items that were excluded were primarily related to atmosphere of the place (exotic and familiar), shopping facilities, and to specific kinds of cultural attractions – especially museums and cultural events. In this context, the differences between the two samples, were that students cited historic sites and the nightlife and entertainment more frequently than visitors to Gerês, suggesting these two attractions had more appeal to students (table 8.17.). Taking into consideration that there was a high difference between the percentage of students and of visitors to Gerês who mentioned nightlife and entertainment, it was decided to exclude this item too.

Table 8.17. – The percentage of respondents who mentioned each attraction, according to the areas where the survey was carried out

		Closed question			Open question			Total		
		On Site N=42	At University N=44	Total N=86	On Site N=42	At University N=44	Total N=86	On Site N=42	At University N=44	Total N=86
1	A	36%	43%	40%	14%	30%	22%	43%	55%	49%
2	B	5	20	13	7	20	14	12	36	24
3	C	10	11	10	0	7	3	10	18	14
4	D	5	11	8	5	5	5	10	14	12
5	E	52	43	48	12	11	12	55	55	55
6	F	50	50	50	90	93	92	93	95	94
7	G	19	25	22	12	36	24	21	48	40
8	H	17	20	19	14	43	29	26	55	41
9	I	36	34	35	12	20	16	40	45	43
10	J	5	20	13	0	2	1	5	20	13
11	L	10	20	15	14	39	27	19	48	34
12	M	24	39	31	7	18	13	29	48	38
13	N	43	32	37	88	70	79	93	77	85
14	O	36	41	38	24	36	30	52	64	58
15	P	40	30	35	83	64	73	90	77	84
16	Q	31	55	43	7	20	14	36	61	49
17	R	5	9	7	2	2	2	5	9	7
18	S	14	41	28	38	52	45	40	68	55
19	T	14	30	22	7	16	12	17	39	28

N - Number of respondents who answered the attractions' questionnaire.

All the items seemed likely to be considered as attractive features at all of these three types of destinations (table 8.18.). However, there were large differences among the percentage of respondents who mentioned attraction items in some of these three areas (table 8.18.). The major differences are noticed in two kind of features: (i) those features related to the environment and to natural attractions (e.g. walking trails, flora and fauna, rivers and lakes and unpolluted environment) were more frequently considered as the most attractive features of the areas visited when compared to competing destinations (especially the weakest competitor); and (ii) nightlife and entertainment were more often considered as a major attraction of the competing destinations when compared to the protected areas (table 8.18.)

Table 8.18. - The percentage of respondents who mentioned each attraction in the context of destination visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor

		Destination chosen N=86	Strongest competitor N=68	Weakest competitor N=58
1	A	22%	40%	29%
2	B	6	16	17
3	C	7	4	7
4	D	2	7	9
5	E	45	22	16
6	F	92	62	64
7	G	14	28	19
8	H	14	29	34
9	I	28	19	19
10	J	6	9	7
11	L	10	19	21
12	M	23	16	24
13	N	80	43	26
14	O	33	35	34
15	P	78	37	22
16	Q	40	28	16
17	R	1	9	0
18	S	15	35	34
19	T	5	22	22

N - Number of destinations visited, strongest competitors or weakest competitors, considered by respondents who answered the attractions' questionnaire.

No attractions were added to the list, since the attractions referenced in open questions were already covered on lists of other constructs related to positioning: motivations (calm, tranquillity, isolation, rest); facilities (accommodation); or constraints (being a cheap destination; destination being close from the place of residence). The list of attraction items retained is shown in table 8.19..

Table 8.19. – The list of attraction items remaining after excluding less important items

- climate
- walking trails
- scenery
- flora and fauna
- rivers and lakes
- unpolluted environment
- beaches
- architecture/buildings
- customs and culture
- hospitality of local people
- historic sites
- local cuisine (gastronomy)
- opportunities for experiencing new and different lifestyle

In the case of facilities, respondents were requested to select six items for each destination which represented 40 percent of the number of items on the facilities list. Thus, the decision rule adopted was to exclude all items referenced by fewer then 50 percent of respondents (table 8.20.). A majority of the items excluded were items that had been extracted from Ryan and Sterling's study (2001), which was specific to protected areas. Other items that were deleted from the list related primarily to local transportation and to service quality.

The majority of items retained on the list were important to respondents at both areas where the questionnaires were administered – Gerês and the universities (table 8.20.). The main difference between the groups was that students considered more frequently than visitors to Gerês, that the facilities for providing information and safety were positive or negative features of the destinations. This suggests that facilities' elements related to those features may be more important to students. The students completed the questionnaire after the 11th September 2001 terrorist attack, whereas most visitors to Gerês completed the

questionnaire earlier and the events of the 11th September may have impacted the students' views of the importance of facilities elements of the destinations. Differences in the importance of security may also be related to the kind of competing destinations that students and visitors identified, with the former perhaps being more adventurous and considering competing destinations that are not so safe.

Table 8.20. – The percentage of respondents who mentioned each facilities element, according to the areas where the survey was carried out

		Closed question		
		On Site N=42	At University N=44	Total N=86
1	A	43%	82%	63%
2	B	60	66	63
3	C	45	48	47
4	D	69	80	74
5	E	33	41	37
6	F	17	59	38
7	G	45	66	56
8	H	31	59	45
9	I	62	93	78
10	J	48	57	52
11	L	52	52	52
12	M	24	32	28
13	N	50	61	56
14	O	67	84	76
15	P	31	48	40

N - Number of respondents who answered the facilities' questionnaire.

There seems to be a general consensus that the items referring to facilities that were retained (table 8.21.), were likely to be potentially positive or negative features at each of these three kinds of destinations. At the same time, large differences were noticed among the percentage of respondents who cited facilities items in some of these three areas (table 8.21.). The main differences were that signage (J) and cleanliness (N) were more frequently reported as the most positive or most negative features at protected areas when compared to competing destinations, suggesting that facilities related to these features may play a role in differentiating protected areas from their competing destinations.

Table 8.21. - The percentage of respondents who mentioned each facilities element in the context of destination visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor

		Destination chosen N=86	Strongest competitor N=68	Weakest competitor N=58
1	A	47%	37%	36%
2	B	38	34	41
3	C	35	15	24
4	D	48	53	48
5	E	27	22	9
6	F	28	24	24
7	G	38	26	31
8	H	29	24	33
9	I	30	40	31
10	J	38	16	24
11	L	27	31	31
12	M	13	13	14
13	N	43	26	17
14	O	50	49	45
15	P	17	25	14

N - Number of destinations visited, strongest competitors or weakest competitors, considered by respondents who answered the facilities' questionnaire.

The list of items concerning facilities that were retained is shown in table 8.22..

Table 8.22. – The list of items concerning facilities remaining after excluding less important items

- quality of accommodations
- camping areas
- availability of accommodations
- food outlets
- signage
- the destination's accessibility
- facilities for providing information
- safety
- cleanliness

As far as constraints were concerned, the decision rule adopted for the exclusion of items was the same as that used for motivations and attractions. Again, items mentioned by fewer than 25 percent of respondents were excluded (table 8.23.). However, an exception was made for items A and Q (related to the price of travel to the destination and to the price of accommodation), that were retained on the list in order to obtain more detailed information about the reasons why respondents could not afford to travel to the destinations they considered visiting. It was decided to retain items A and Q because they represented the most influential financial constraints for respondents. Items excluded were related to weather conditions, planning of the travel, security elements and economic features.

Items retained in the range seemed to be important to respondents at both sites where the questionnaire was administered (table 8.23.), with no major differences existing between the two groups concerning the importance of these constraints.

Table 8.23. – The percentage of respondents who mentioned each constraint, according to the areas where the survey was carried out

		Closed question			Open question			Total		
		On Site N=29	At University N=43	Total N=72	On Site N=29	At University N=43	Total N=72	On Site N=29	At University N=43	Total N=72
1	A	7%	21%	15%	10%	7%	8%	17%	23%	21%
2	B	38	30	33	17	21	19	45	44	44
3	C	10	23	18	7	2	4	17	23	21
4	D	28	26	26	21	28	25	41	44	43
5	E	7	7	7	0	7	4	7	14	11
6	F	38	42	40	10	16	14	34	47	42
7	G	10	19	15	7	9	8	17	23	21
8	H	0	9	6	0	2	1	0	12	7
9	I	3	7	6	0	0	0	3	14	10
10	J	3	9	7	0	2	1	3	12	8
11	L	28	26	26	3	2	3	24	28	26
12	M	10	19	15	3	2	3	14	19	17
13	N	14	37	28	55	35	43	55	56	56
14	O	17	12	14	7	2	4	21	14	17
15	P	28	26	26	7	5	6	34	28	31
16	Q	17	14	15	3	19	13	17	28	24
17	R	24	28	26	28	19	22	34	33	33
18	S	0	9	6	3	12	8	3	21	14

N - Number of respondents who answered the constraints' questionnaire.

There appeared to be a general consensus among respondents that all the items seemed likely to represent obstacles which visitors may have to consider and overcome when planning to visit any of these kinds of areas (table 8.24.). However, there were large

differences among the percentage of respondents who cited some of the constraint items in each of these three areas (table 8.24.). The major differences between the constraints to travel to these areas were that respondents reported being more busy when planning to go to protected areas than when planning to go to their competing destinations, and they reported safety to be a more important constraint when they considered visiting competing destinations. Other differences were that it was more difficult for respondents to get to protected areas than to competing destinations, but they considered that the price of the travel was a constraint mainly for travelling to competing destinations. Some of these findings may partially derive from many respondents selecting competing destinations that were much further away from their place of residence, and perceived to be less safe than the Portuguese protected areas. They also suggest that the Portuguese protected areas did not have good accessibility.

Table 8.24. - The percentage of respondents who mentioned each constraint in the context of destination visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor

		Destination chosen N=72	Strongest competitor N=56	Weakest competitor N=48
1	A	8%	11%	17%
2	B	29	30	29
3	C	7	20	15
4	D	22	39	19
5	E	6	9	6
6	F	32	30	27
7	G	15	5	6
8	H	3	2	6
9	I	3	0	4
10	J	4	2	8
11	L	21	16	8
12	M	6	7	10
13	N	31	43	27
14	O	6	9	17
15	P	17	14	13
16	Q	10	18	17
17	R	22	16	13
18	S	14	4	2

N - Number of destinations visited, strongest competitors or weakest competitors, considered by respondents who answered the constraints' questionnaire.

As a result of answers to the open-ended questions, constraints concerning the lack of information about how to get to the destination and the lack of good transportation facilities to travel there were added to the list. The items that resulted from open questions

which were not included in the previous list were already incorporated in the set of facilities items (signage, car parking, accessibility) or were related to interpersonal constraints (not having friends to go with me, needing the agreement of the parents). The list of constraints retained is shown in table 8.25..

Table 8.25. – The list of constraint items remaining after excluding less important items and adding items mentioned in open-ended questions

- Travel to this destination was expensive
- The accommodations on site are expensive
- This destination is too far away from where you live
- You didn't have enough money
- It's not easy to get there
- Difficult to find enough time to go
- Too busy
- This destination was too crowded
- Difficulties in finding accommodations available
- Lack of information about how to get to the destination (introduced after the exploratory study)
- Lack of good transportation infrastructures to get to the destination (introduced after the exploratory study)

As far as information sources were concerned, the same decision rule of excluding items cited by fewer than 25 percent of respondents was adopted. An exception was made for item F (accommodations on site), which was retained on the list because it was cited by almost 25 percent of the respondents (24%) and it was considered almost as important to visitors of Gerês as it was important to students (table 8.26.). Items excluded were travel agents, companies that organize activities/manage an attraction at the destination, advertisements, transportation companies, associations and consumer reports (table 8.26.).

A majority of the information sources retained seemed to be important to respondents at both areas where the questionnaire was administered (table 8.26.). However, there were some differences in responses to the construct items between the visitors to Gerês and the students. The main difference was that the former showed a higher preference than students for using "travel guides" (table 8.26.).

Table 8.26. – The percentage of respondents who mentioned each information source, according to the areas where the survey was carried out

		Closed question			Open question			Total		
		On Site N=29	At University N=43	Total N=72	On Site N=29	At University N=43	Total N=72	On Site N=29	At University N=43	Total N=72
1	A	34%	58%	49%	69%	47%	56%	72%	77%	75%
2	B	7	12	10	10	5	7	14	14	14
3	C	24	19	21	28	9	17	48	26	35
4	D	7	7	7	7	0	3	14	7	10
5	E	7	12	10	0	0	0	7	12	10
6	F	21	19	19	0	7	4	21	26	24
7	G	7	7	7	0	0	0	7	7	7
8	H	10	14	13	0	5	3	10	16	14
9	I	31	35	33	34	19	25	59	49	53
10	J	24	16	19	14	16	15	31	28	29
11	L	7	14	11	3	9	7	3	9	7
12	M	21	21	21	17	26	22	34	35	35
13	N	24	19	21	34	14	22	45	30	36
14	O	0	5	3	0	0	0	0	5	3

N - Number of respondents who answered the information sources' questionnaire.

Most of the information sources retained were used to a similar extent to obtain information about the protected area selected, and about either its strongest or weakest competitor (table 8.27.). However, there were some differences in the sources of information used among the three destinations (table 8.27.). Accommodations on-site were more frequently consulted to obtain information about the destinations visited than about competing destinations. Books, newspapers and magazine articles were used by more respondents to obtain information about the destination visited and about the weakest competitors. This may reflect people wanting more knowledge and more detailed information about the destination they have decided to visit, and also that some people may develop a desire to travel to a destination (e.g. an exotic destination) by reading this kind of literature.

Table 8.27. - The percentage of respondents who mentioned each information source in the context of destination visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor

		Destination chosen N=72	Strongest competitor N=56	Weakest competitor N=48
1	A	67%	59%	56%
2	B	7	13	19
3	C	31	32	33
4	D	4	7	4
5	E	6	9	8
6	F	19	9	6
7	G	3	2	6
8	H	11	7	6
9	I	42	36	40
10	J	18	23	15
11	L	3	5	2
12	M	24	14	31
13	N	29	18	21
14	O	3	2	0

N - Number of destinations visited, strongest competitors or weakest competitors, considered by respondents who answered the information sources' questionnaire.

"Maps" and "TV programs" were inserted into the set of information sources, since respondents reported them on open-ended responses. The TV influence was differentiated according to whether it was marketer-dominated (advertisements) or not (programs). Items mentioned by respondents but not added to the list were related to the internet (which is being considered, in this study, as a way of obtaining information from several sources, and not as an information source in itself), and internal search (previous experience with the destination). The list of information sources retained is shown in table 8.28..

Table 8.28. – The list of information sources items remaining after excluding less important items and adding items mentioned in open-ended questions

- Accommodations on site
- Brochures
- Public tourism organizations / tourism offices
- Friends
- Travel guides
- Relatives
- Books, newspaper/magazine articles
- Maps (introduced after the exploratory study)
- TV programs (introduced after the exploratory study)

Approximately 30 percent of respondents used the internet to obtain information about the protected area visited, or about the strongest or weakest competitor. On average, those who used the internet considered it to be moderately important. Sources that were most consulted through the internet were: accommodations on site (consulted by 57% of the respondents who used the internet); companies that organize activities or manage an attraction in the destination (14%); transportation companies (10%); brochures (10%); and public tourism organizations/tourism offices (10%). Associations, consumer reports and books/newspapers and magazines were also consulted through the internet, but only by a small number of respondents (5% of those who used it).

The analyses of the results of this exploratory study provided valuable insights for development of the questionnaire used to collect data for this study. A rationalization of the responses discussed to this point into the final study questionnaire is described in the following section.

8.2.3. Rationalization of the questionnaire

Several features that may influence a destination's position were included in the final list of items on more than one of the constructs. Thus, to be parsimonious, decisions had to be made on how to remove the duplication. The main objectives in rationalizing the list of items to be included in the study questionnaire were: (i) to build a list of items that incorporated all the items included in the final lists of each of the constructs analyzed; (ii) to identify the dimensions to which each set of items belonged; and (iii) to avoid repetition/duplication of items in multiple constructs.

To avoid repetition of some features, some items were excluded. These included the motivation to "visit historical sites, museums, or attend cultural dimensions" (this was closely related to one item already included in the attractions list); and cleanliness (this was closely related to "unpolluted environment" which was included in the attractions list). The items related to signage and a destination's accessibility were also excluded because it was considered that they were already contemplated in the constraints list by the item concerning difficulty in getting to the destination. Similarly, the item referring to the opportunity for experiencing new and different lifestyles was not included in the final questionnaire, because it was already represented in the motivation list as the motivation to experience and explore new things.

Some items were reassigned from the domains into which they were originally allocated into other domains. The items were reassigned to one of five groups that represented the constructs to be measured by the final questionnaire: (i) motivations; (ii) attractions of the destination; (iii) facilities of the destinations; (iv) constraints; and (v) information sources. This was the case with the motivation item "view the scenery, be close to nature", which was assigned to the list of attraction items as "opportunities for viewing the scenery, being close to nature". The option for reassigning this item was that this motivation was closely related to specific attractions – scenery and nature. Similarly, the constraint item "this destination was too crowded" was also reassigned to the attractions list as "lack of crowds", given that the lack of crowds was considered to be one feature that may attract potential visitors to a destination with the expectation of benefiting from a calm

environment. All the items related to the availability and quality of accommodation were compounded into a single item designed as "accommodations" that was integrated in the list of facilities. The item "food outlets" was renamed as "restaurants", given that in the exploratory study it was observed that this latter designation would be more meaningful to potential visitors. Finally, in order to ensure that each dimension of constraints would be represented by at least three items, one more item related to constraints was added, "you had more important things to do".

After having explained all the rationale adopted to rationalize the final questionnaire, in the next section, a description of the questionnaire is presented.

8.3. The final questionnaire

The objective of the study was to test the hypotheses that emerged from the literature review listed in chapters 3 to 5. The questionnaire used to collect data for the study was designed to measure the constructs specified in these hypotheses (hypotheses listed in the table 6.1.).

8.3.1. Methods

The final questionnaire, like the exploratory study, was comprised of three sections (appendix 2):

(i) identification of the protected areas visited by respondents, and of their competing destinations;

(ii) measurement of the positioning of the protected areas and specific competing destinations, and of four constructs that may influence positioning - information search, involvement, constraints and familiarity;

(iii) respondents' personal data.

Each of these sections of the questionnaire is described in the following sections.

8.3.1.1. Section one of the final questionnaire

This section was very similar to the first section of the questionnaires used in the exploratory study. First, the interviewer registered the specific site a respondent was visiting and the day when the questionnaire was administered. After that, respondents were asked the same questions included in the exploratory study designed to ensure they were tourists (visitors spending at least one night in a place different from the usual place of residence) who were travelling for leisure, recreation and/or holiday purposes. Only respondents who met both of these conditions were selected for inclusion in the study.

To identify destinations belonging to respondents' initial and late consideration sets, respondents were requested to recall the period they spent thinking about where to go, before they decided to visit the protected area they selected. They were then requested to identify all the destinations they had thought about going to, for the purpose of leisure, recreation and/or holiday trip. The same approach as that used in the exploratory study was adopted for identifying a destination belonging to a respondent's late consideration set - strongest competitor - and a destination belonging to the initial consideration set – weakest competitor. Respondents were requested to indicate from among the destinations they had mentioned, those that they were most and least likely to visit (the strongest and the weakest competitor, respectively).

8.3.1.2. Section two of the final questionnaire

In this section, respondents were asked several questions about the protected area they were visiting, its strongest competitor and its weakest competitor. The main objectives of this section were:

(i) to assess the positioning of protected areas visited by respondents and of their strongest and weakest competitors;

(ii) to measure selected constructs associated with the protected area visited and with the competing destinations considered, that might influence the positioning of destinations and the process of selecting a place to visit. The constructs that were measured were: information search to obtain information about the destination, level of involvement with the destination, level of familiarity with the destination and constraints to travel to the destination.

First, respondents were requested to provide information about their level of familiarity with the protected area they were visiting and about the strongest and weakest competitors. Experience with these destinations was measured by number of previous visits to each destination. Respondents were asked whether they had previously travelled to these destinations and, if so, they were requested to indicate the number of times they had visited them, and the elapsed time since the last visit. Respondents were also asked to report the hours of duration of their trip between their residence and each of the three destinations.

In the second set of questions, respondents had to report on the search they carried out to obtain information about the three destinations - protected area visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor. They were shown the list of information sources that emerged from the exploratory study and were asked to identify sources they had used to collect information about each of these three areas. For each information source they had consulted, they were requested to report the amount of time they spent acquiring information from that source. In order to evaluate the role of the internet in the process of information search, respondents were asked to indicate whether they had used the internet to obtain information about the destination or not. Those who used the internet indicated the sources they had contacted using it, and also the level of importance of the internet in their total search process, using a 5-point scale (from 1=not important to 5=extremely important).

To identify the kind of information respondents had collected about the destinations, they were first shown a list of attractions, and facilities elements that emerged from the

exploratory study. Visitors were then requested to identify the items for which they sought information for each of the three destinations [4].

The subsequent group of questions was designed to enable measurement of the positioning of the protected areas, of strongest competitors and of weakest competitors, in relation to their competitors. The objective was to measure level of attractiveness of each destination. Comparison of the level of attractiveness of a destination with the level of attractiveness of competitors provided a measure of the positioning of the destination. Respondents were shown a list of motivations, attractions and facilities elements that emerged from the exploratory study. They were requested to state for each destination how important these features were in making the destination attractive to them when they were considering visiting the destination. Again, they indicated level of importance of these features on a 5-point scale (from 1=not important to 5=extremely important). Respondents were allowed to answer "do not know" when they had no opinion about what was being asked.

The last group of questions in this section was related to the constraints and level of involvement respondents had with the three destinations. Respondents were shown the list of constraints that emerged from the exploratory study and were requested to indicate how important these features were in making it difficult for them to travel to the three destinations. They indicated whether or not each potential constraint had made it difficult to travel to each destination by using a 5-point scale (from 1="did not make it difficult" to 5= "made it extremely difficult").

The level of involvement was measured using the involvement scale provided by Dimanche *et al.* (1991), which is an adaptation of Laurent and Kaupferer's scale (1985) to a leisure and tourism context (see chapter 5). Initially, the intent was to measure involvement using the complete range of items in this scale, but since the questionnaire was long and some measures of risk had already been captured in the constraints section, it was decided to retain only the facets of involvement that were not related to risk. One item

[4] Initially, it was intended also to measure the importance of the information collected about each item, in the decision of whether or not to visit the destination using a 5-point scale (from 1=not important to 5=extremely important). However, the extensive length of the questionnaire, led to a decision to identify only the items on which respondents sought information.

belonging to the importance facet of involvement - "this kind of destination leaves me totally indifferent" – was omitted because it was confusingly worded. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the eight statements on involvement that remained in the questionnaire, using a 5-point scale (from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree).

8.3.1.3. Section three of the final questionnaire

Visitors were requested to state the composition of their travel group, the modes of transport they used to get to the protected area, the types of accommodation they would use for night stays during the trip, the main activities performed at the protected area visited, and their current economic status.

In composition of the travel group, respondents indicated the number of people included in their travel group, and whether there were people under 15 years old in the group. This last question was designed to obtain information about whether there were children in the group. The criterion for classifying a person as a child was established using the age cohorts suggested by the WTO (1995). The age for considering a person as a child corresponded to the upper limit of the first age cohort suggested by WTO (1995) – 14 years old.

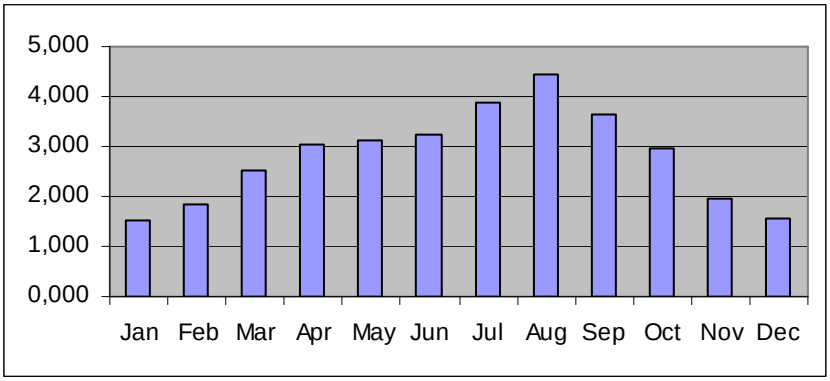
Modes of transport and types of accommodation were solicited using closed questions composed of the main modes of transport that could be used by respondents to arrive to the protected area and the accommodations that predominated in the Portuguese protected areas.

Respondents were requested to report the activities in which they had engaged or were planning to engage in an open-ended question. Finally, they were asked to report their economic status in a closed-ended question.

8.4. Sampling procedure

The final questionnaire was administered in 2002. Given the researcher's financial and time constraints, and in order to have the opportunity to interview a high number of visitors per day, it was decided to carry out the research in the period of the year when there are usually most bednights in Portugal in hotel establishments. The INE in the year 2000 reported that this was in the months of July and August (figure 8.1.). Thus, the population on this research is tourists who visited the Gerês National Park and the Sintra Natural Park, mainly for the purpose of leisure/recreation/holidays, between the 15th of June and the end of August, 2002. This population includes tourists who stayed in accommodations inside or outside the Parks.

Figure 8.1. – Number of bednights in hotel establishments in Portugal in 2000 (in thousands)



Source: INE (2001)

The size of the sample was defined by the need to have an acceptable confidence level in the statistical analyses. Since positioning was the main construct under analysis and was represented in the logistic regression by a binary variable (see next section), the size of the sample was defined by this construct and the variable that represented it (figure 8.2.). The two binary variables that represented overall positioning were:

- **Area visited vs. strongest competitor**: binary variable with two categories (1- area chosen as a destination to visit; 0-destination only included in the late consideration set and not in subsequent sets);

- **Area visited vs. weakest competitor**: binary variable with two categories (1- area chosen as a destination to visit; 0-destination only included in the early consideration set and not in subsequent sets).

Figure 8.2. – Definition of the sample size of the thesis

$$n = \frac{\left(Z_{\frac{\alpha}{2}}\right)^2 .p.q}{D^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2.(0.5)^2}{(0.055)^2} = 317$$

Where:

n (sample size)
D (level of precision) = 0.055
λ (confidence level) = $1-\alpha = 0.95$
p (percentage of destinations chosen as a destination to visit) = 0.5

Source: Based on Reis and Moreira (1993)

When testing the hypotheses about positioning, only visitors considering at least one alternate destination were included in the analyses. Given that in those analyses an equal number of destinations visited and competing destinations (strongest or weakest competitors) were compared, when determining the size of the sample, the percentage of destinations chosen as a destination to visit (p), is 0.5[5]. Thus, in this thesis, the sample size was calculated based on a value of p=0.5, an error of 5.5 percentage points, and a value of Z corresponding to a 95% confidence level. This resulted in a minimum sample size of 317.

However, to provide more support for the hypotheses being tested, they were tested at two different geographical sites. Therefore, it would be necessary to have 317 respondents in each of these areas. Further, some statistical analyses required respondents to have considered visiting at least two alternate destinations besides the destination that they were visiting. Taking this issue into consideration, it was decided to require a minimum of 317

[5] Reis and Moreira (1993) also suggest that, if there is no indication about the p value, a value of p of 0.5 should be considered.

respondents from each geographical area who had considered at least two alternate destinations.

In the last chapter, some data about the demand of the National Park of Gerês and the Natural Park of Sintra were presented. Although these data give indications about the tourists who visited the two Parks in previous years, it is not possible to identify the precise profile of the population of this study for the following reasons:

- the data available at the time when the questionnaire was administered referred to previous years and did not predict the numbers and profile of tourists who will visit the Parks for leisure/recreation/holidays purposes, between the 15th of June and the end of August of 2002;
- the data provided by the INE about guests in tourism accommodation were restricted to hotel establishments, rural accommodation and camping sites, and have the following characteristics:
  - the data concerning the guests of hotel establishments were only available on a municipality basis and the areas of the Parks do not correspond exactly to groups of municipalities; additionally, there are data about hotel establishment guests by area and also by month, but there are no data on the number of these guests categorized by nationality and by month;
  - the data about the demand of rural accommodation are also available on a municipality basis, but not on a monthly or nationality basis;
  - the data about the demand for camping sites are available, but not on a municipality basis;
- the data provided by the ICN were restricted to people who participated in guided tours in the Parks, who approached facilities located in these areas and/or used some kinds of accommodation located in these areas (nature houses); consequently, these data do not included all tourists who visited the Parks;
- the data provided by the ICN probably include people other than tourists (e.g. people travelling inside their usual environment or same-day visitors), who do not correspond to the target of this study;

- the data provided by the INE and the ICN probably include people for whom the main purpose of the travel is other than leisure (e.g. business, health, visiting friends and relatives);
- the data presented in the last chapter that were provided by other sources than the INE or ICN, concern areas much larger than those of the Parks.

It was decided to use data on guests at hotel establishments as an approximate surrogate for the population and to use a stratified sampling procedure based on the country of residence of the guests.

As Reis and Moreira (1993) suggest, in stratified sampling the population must be divided into groups of individuals with similar characteristics, and the sample must have the same proportion of each group that exists in the population. The percentage of guests of hotel establishments according to the country of residence was used as the criterion for stratification. In a first stage, the data used as reference corresponded to the data relating to hotel establishments of the NUT III where the parks under study were located. However, data referring to hotel establishments located only in the municipalities where the parks belonged were also analysed.

Tables 8.29. and 8.30. provide a comparison between the number of respondents from several countries of residence and the number of guests of hotel establishments from those countries. Data from the two parks were analysed separately. The data concerning visitors interviewed in Gerês reasonably mirrors the data concerning the guests of the hotel establishments of the NUTs III where the Gerês Park is located. Hence, Portuguese represented more than 75% of the group, both in the case of the guests of hotel establishments and of the respondents interviewed. Although there are some small differences when compared with the guests of hotel establishments, some of these differences were also found in other studies carried out in the North of Portugal. For example, people living in Spain were not the group most represented in the Gerês sample, as happened with the group of guests of hotel establishments, and, in the Gerês sample, people living in Spain were outnumbered by people living in France. Similarly, the sample

of a study carried out by Kastenholz (2002) in the rural areas of the North of Portugal included more people living in France than people living in Spain.

The sample of the Sintra park also partially portrays the pattern found among the guests of hotel establishments in the Sintra park. However, in this case, the sample obtained has more similarities with the guests of the hotel establishments located in the municipalities of the park. This probably happens because although a majority of the people interviewed in Sintra park indicated that they did not stay in accommodations in the area of the park, and the NUT III where the Sintra park is integrated – Grande Lisboa – encompassed a wide range of municipalities with widely different characteristics – e.g. Sintra, Cascais, Lisboa, Odivelas, Loures and Vila Franca de Xira. The respondents interviewed in the Sintra Park partially portrayed the guests of the two municipalities of the park, given that those living in Portugal represent less than 30% in the two groups and people living in Spain correspond to the foreign market most represented in both groups. However, it is considered that the guests of hotel establishment of the NUT III and municipalities of the park are not such a good reference profile for visitors to the Sintra park as they were for the Gerês park for the following reasons:

- the percentage of respondents who did not stay in accommodations in the area of the park visited was higher in the Sintra park (34%) than in the Gerês park (13%); it is important to note two points within this context:
  - in the case of people who did not use accommodations located in the park there are no data about the location of the accommodation where people stayed and, consequently, they may have stayed anywhere outside the park;
  - when only people who stayed in accommodations in the area of the park are considered, the sample of respondents is more similar to the guests of hotel establishments in the municipalities of the park, because:
    - the percentage of people living in Spain decreases to 10%;
    - the percentage of those living in Portugal rises to 7%;
    - those coming from Italy decrease to 7%; and
    - those from the United States increase to 3.5%.
- in the case of the Sintra park, the number of guests of hotel establishments located in the area of the park is likely to include more people not travelling for

leisure purposes, than in the case of Gerês; in this context it is important to note the following:

- data concerning travels made by people living in Portugal confirms that there is a lower percentage of bednights corresponding to leisure trips in NUT II Lisbon and Tejo Valley (where Sintra is included) than in NUT II North (where Gerês is included) (see figure 8.3.)[6];
- given that people travelling for purposes other than leisure are not the target of this study, a higher percentage of these people among hotel guests contributes to higher discrepancies between the number of respondents and hotel guests.

Table 8.29. – Comparison of the number of guests of hotel establishments of the Gerês park with the number of respondents interviewed in this park

Country of residence	Gerês National Park				
	Guest of hotel establishments		Respondents interviewed in the scope of the thesis	Difference between the % of guests of hotel establishments and the % of respondents interviewed	
	Global set of NUTs III where the Park is located (%) (A)	Global set of municipalities where the Park is located (%) (B)	(%) (C)	Global set of NUTs III where the Park is located (A - C)	Global set of municipalities where the Park is located (B - C)
Portugal	75.73	91.61	78.57	-2.83	13.05
Germany	2.23	1.66	2.24	-0.01	-0.58
Spain	7.47	1.79	3.68	3.79	-1.89
France	2.91	0.79	6.19	-3.28	-5.40
Italy	3.22	0.44	0.18	3.04	0.26
Netherlands	0.94	0.89	3.77	-2.83	-2.88
United Kingdom	2.21	1.58	1.70	0.51	-0.13
United States	0.84	0.22	0.00	0.84	0.22
Other	4.45	1.02	3.68	0.77	-2.66
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00

Source: Based on INE (2001)

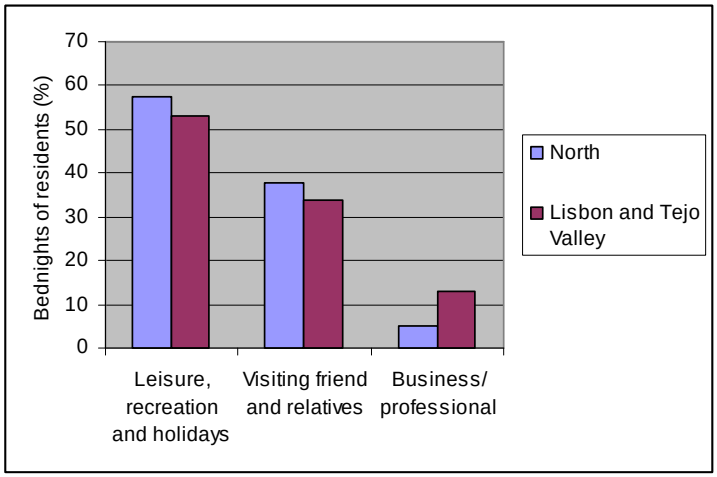
[6] The data here presented are from 2001, given that this was the first year after 1999 when data by motive of trip were available in the INE statistics.

Table 8.30. – Comparison of the number of guests of hotel establishments in the Sintra park with the number of respondents interviewed in this park

Country of residence	**Sintra Natural Park**				
	Guest of hotel establishments		**Respondents interviewed in the scope of the thesis**	**Difference between the % of guests of hotel establishments and the % of respondents interviewed**	
	Global set of NUTs III where the Park is located	Global set of municipalities where the Park is located		Global set of NUTs III where the Park is located	Global set of municipalities where the Park is located
	(%)	(%)	(%)		
	(A)	(B)	(C)	(A - C)	(B - C)
Portugal	32.91	29.74	6.23	26.69	23.51
Germany	7.35	7.24	4.80	2.55	2.44
Spain	12.85	15.48	27.22	-14.37	-11.74
France	6.04	5.35	20.82	-14.78	-15.47
Italy	6.32	3.27	11.74	-5.42	-8.47
Netherlands	2.00	3.50	5.16	-3.16	-1.66
United Kingdom	6.09	10.05	6.58	-0.50	3.47
United States	7.04	7.07	1.96	5.08	5.11
Other	19.39	18.29	15.48	3.91	2.81
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	0.00	0.00

Source: Based on INE (2001)

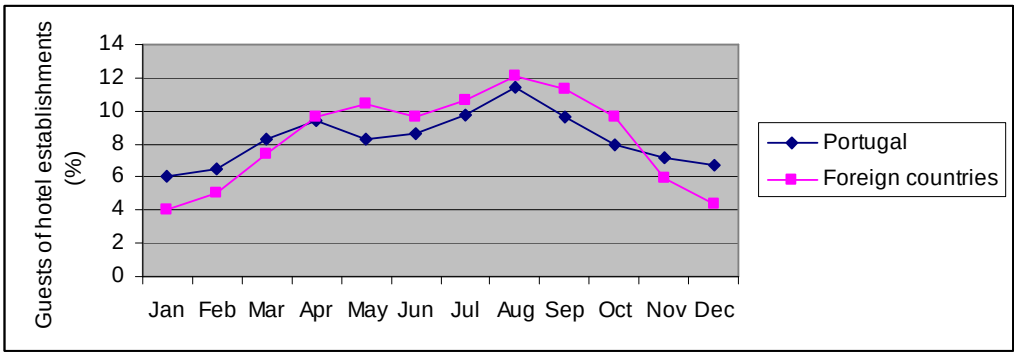
Figure 8.3. – Bednights of residents in Portugal in 2001, by motive of trip, by NUT II



Source: Adapted from INE (2001)

There are some discrepancies between the data from guests of hotel establishments and the respondents of the Sintra sample. However, some of these discrepancies may be related, among other factors, to the greater seasonality among foreigners than among Portuguese (figure 8.4.). Hence, figure 8.4. suggests it is possible to conclude that in all the months when the study was conducted – June, July and August – the percentage of foreigners was consistently higher than the percentage of Portuguese. Consequently, as the data previously presented concerning the guests of hotel establishments (tables 8.29. and 8.30.) refers to the whole year, in the months when the study was conducted a lower percentage of Portuguese than 29.7% in hotel establishments in the municipalities of the Sintra park should be expected.

Figure 8.4. – Number of guests of hotel establishments in Portugal in 2000, by month



Source: Adapted from INE (2001)

Looking at the data about the visitors to the Vila's Palace it is also possible to notice that in 2001, only 14,7% of the visitors to the monument were Portuguese (IPPAR, 2002)[7]. The data suggest that the proportion of Portuguese among the visitors to the Sintra Park may be considerably lower than the proportion of Portuguese among hotel guests of the NUT III Grande Lisboa. Consequently, the proportion of Portuguese among the visitors to the Sintra Park may be even lower than 14,7%. It is reasonable to expect higher seasonality in the foreign visitors than in the Portuguese, with the percentage of Portuguese visitors being lower in the months when the questionnaires were administered.

[7] In 2002, the proportion of Portuguese among the visitors to the Vila's Palace was even lower than 14.7%, corresponding to 13% (IPPAR, 2003).

Taking into account all the arguments above presented, and the number of Portuguese and foreigners interviewed at the Sintra park, it was considered that the visitors interviewed could be a considerably good sample of the visitors to the Sintra Park.

After describing the sampling procedure adopted in this thesis, the next section explains how the variables analysed in the thesis were operationalized.

8.5. Operationalization of the variables

In this section, a description of the methodology used for operationalising each of the variables being analyzed is provided. Every time a variable was recoded in order to carry out a specific statistical analysis, both the original and recoded variables are presented. Although some variables were only recoded after some statistical analyses of the variables had been carried out, it was considered useful to present a summary of the operationalization of all the variables before beginning the presentation of the analysis of the results.

Socio-demographic variables:

- **Gender:** binary variable (0 – male; 1 – female);
- **Country of residence:** nominal variable with several categories (each category corresponded to one country of residence);
- **Year the respondents were born:** ratio variable corresponding to the year each visitor was born;
- **Highest grade completed in school:**
  - Original variable: nominal variable with five categories (elementary school; junior high school; high school; college; graduate school);
  - Variable recoded: the original variable was recoded into a binary variable (0 – high school or lower; 1 – college or graduate school);

- **Current economic activity status:**
  - Original variable: nominal variable with five categories corresponding to those suggested by WTO (1995) (student; homemaker; retired; employed, unemployed);
  - Variable recoded: the original variable was recoded into a binary variable (1 – employed; 0 - other);

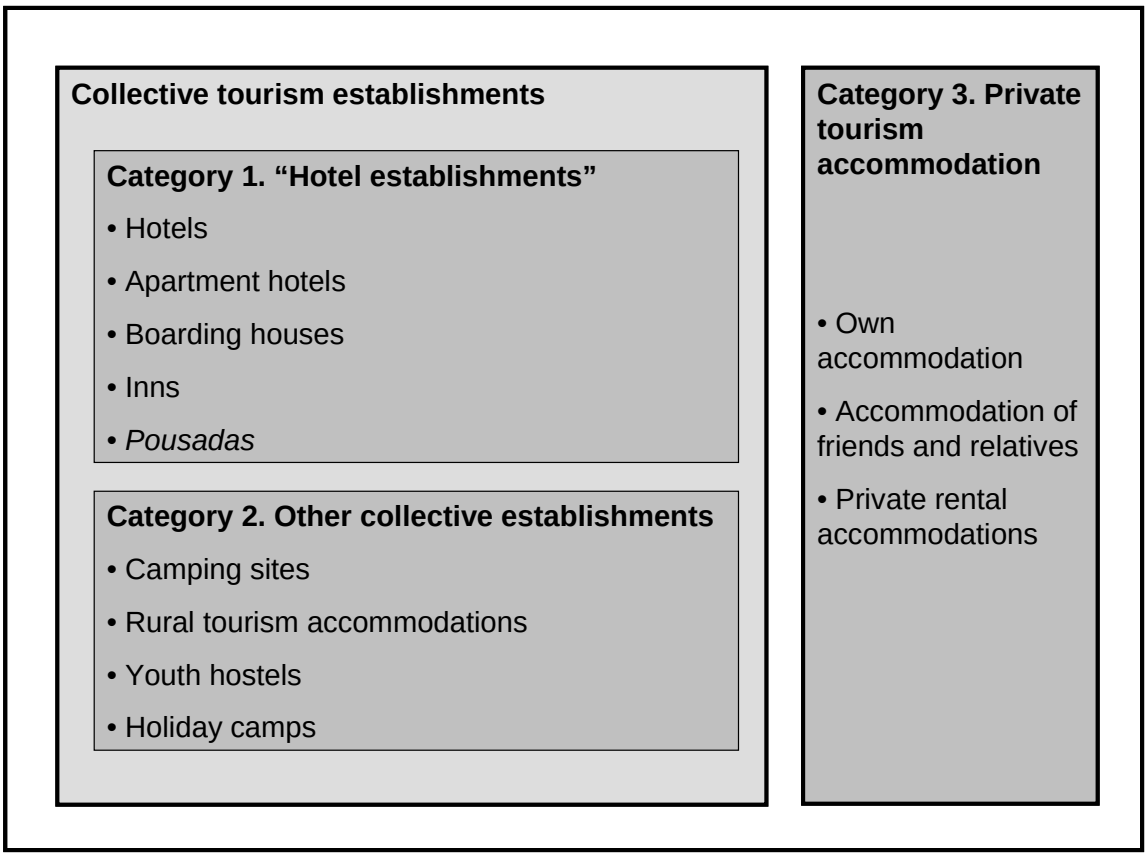
Behaviour before and during the travel:

- **Size of the travel group:** ratio variable corresponding to the number of people included in the travel group;
- **Presence of people under 15 years old in the travel group:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);
- **Modes of transport used to get to the protected area:**
  - **Plane:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);
  - **Car:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);
  - **Bus:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);
  - **Train:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);
  - **Cab:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);
  - **Other:** binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes); if the respondents indicated having used another mode of transport, they were asked to indicate which means of transportation they had used;
- **Type of accommodation used for more night stays during the trip:**
  - Original variable: nominal variable with four categories (hotels, boarding houses, camping sites and other); if the respondents indicated having used another type of accommodation, they were asked to indicate which type of accommodation they had used;
  - Variable recoded:
    - The accommodations were first grouped, based on a classification suggested by the WTO (1995, p.59), into two groups: collective tourism establishments and private tourism accommodation. Collective tourism

establishments were further divided in two subgroups: accommodations that are classified as "hotel establishments" (according to Portuguese legislation) and "other collective establishments". In figure 8.5. are represented the three groups of accommodations that emerged from this classification: "hotel establishments", "other collective establishments" and "private tourism accommodation". As a result of this classification, the variables representing the type of accommodation used that were included in the regressions were the following two binary variables:

- **Hotel establishments:** binary variable (1 - hotel establishments; 0 - other kind of accommodation);
- **Other collective accommodation:** binary variable (1 - other collective accommodation; 0 - other kind of accommodation);

Figure 8.5. – Classification of tourism accommodation



- **Activities people engaged or planned to engage in the place they were visiting:** four nominal variables, each corresponding to one of the activities mentioned by the respondents (four maximum);
- **Main purpose of the visit to the protected area:** nominal variable with six categories corresponding to the categories also proposed by the WTO (1995) (leisure, recreation and/or holiday; visiting friends and relatives; business and professional; health treatment; religion and pilgrimages; other); (only the respondents visiting the protected area for leisure purposes were included in the study);
- **Number of nights spent in a place that is different from the usual place of residence of the respondents:** ratio variable corresponding to the number of nights away from the usual place of residence;
- **Number of nights spent in the area of the protected area:** ratio variable corresponding to the number of nights spent in the area of the protected area.

Alternate destinations considered:

- **Number of alternate destinations considered:** ratio variable corresponding to the number of destinations that respondents considered visiting (ten maximum);
- **Destination identified as the strongest competitor:** nominal variable corresponding to the alternate destination that a respondent would be most likely to visit among those considered if the selected destination was not chosen;
- **Destination identified as the weakest competitor:** nominal variable corresponding to the alternate destination that a respondent would be least likely to visit among those considered if the selected destination was not chosen.

Familiarity with the destination (area visited, strongest competitor, weakest competitor):

The questions were designed to measure the familiarity that respondents had with the area visited, with the strongest competitor and with the weakest competitor. Familiarity with each destination was measured by using three variables:

- **Number of previous visits made to the destination:** ratio variable corresponding to the number of previous visits;
- **Elapsed time since the last visit to the destination** (in months): ratio variable corresponding to the months that have passed since the last visit;
- **Duration of the travel to the destination** (in hours): ratio variable corresponding to the number of hours the respondent is required to travel from his(her) place of residence to the destination.

Information search in order to obtain information about the destination (area visited, strongest competitor, weakest competitor):

The questions were designed to measure the information search respondents carried out to obtain information about the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor; information search about each destination was measured using several variables:

- Original variables:
  - **Time spent searching for information about the destination from specific information sources**: nine ratio variables corresponding to the time respondents spent searching for information from nine sources (brochures, friends and relatives, travel guides, accommodations located at the destination, television programs, "books/newspaper and magazine articles", maps, "tourism organizations and tourism offices", other kinds of sources[8]);
  - **Use of the internet** for obtaining information about a destination: binary variable (0 – no; 1 – yes);

[8] When the respondents had consulted other kinds of information sources, they were requested to indicate the kind of information sources they had used.

- **Sources contacted using the internet**: nominal variables corresponding to the information sources that the respondents indicated having consulted through the internet;
- **Importance of the internet in obtaining information**: ordinal variable with five categories (not important; slightly important; somewhat important; very important; extremely important);
- **Destination attributes** for which the respondent collected information: the respondents had to indicate whether or not they collected information about 20 destination attributes, giving rise to 20 binary variables with two categories (1 – the respondent sought information about that attribute; 0 - the respondent did not search for information about that attribute);

- Variables recoded:
  - **Strength of information search**:
    - Searched for information about the destination: binary variable with two categories (1 – the respondent sought information about that destination; 0 - the respondent did not search information about that destination);
    - Time spent searching for information about the destination: ratio variable corresponding to the total amount of time the respondent spent collecting information about the destination through the different sources used;
    - Number of information sources consulted: ratio variable corresponding to the number of information sources the respondent consulted to obtain information about the destination;
    - Number of destination attributes for which the information was sought: ratio variable corresponding to the number of attributes of the destination about which the respondent searched for information;
    - Searched for information about the attractions of the destination: binary variable with two categories (1 – the respondent sought information about attractions at the destination; 0 - the respondent did not search for information about attractions at the destination);

- Searched for information about the facilities of the destination: binary variable with two categories (1 – the respondent sought information about facilities of the destination; 0 - the respondent did not search for information about facilities at the destination);
- Strength of search in terms of "nature": ratio variable corresponding to the number of attributes of the destination concerning "nature" for which the respondent searched for information;
- Strength of search in terms of "culture": ratio variable corresponding to the number of attributes of the destination concerning "culture" for which the respondent searched for information;
- Strength of search in terms of "peacefulness": ratio variable corresponding to the number of attributes of the destination concerning "peacefulness" for which the respondent searched for information;
- Strength of search in terms of "beach and climate": ratio variable corresponding to the number of attributes of the destination concerning "beach and climate" for which the respondent searched for information;
- Strength of search in terms of "facilities": ratio variable corresponding to the number of attributes of the destination concerning "facilities" for which the respondent searched for information;
- Search effort for obtaining information about the destination: An index was created representing the search effort for obtaining information from each destination. This index incorporated several indicators of the strength of search, and was calculated through the formula presented in figure 8.6. (the operationalization of this variable will be described in more detail in chapter 10). The recoded variable was a ratio variable corresponding to the index that represented the search effort made for obtaining information about the destination.

- **Direction of search**:
  - **Kind of information sources the respondents consulted** to obtain information about the destination:
    - All the destinations about which the respondents searched for information were clustered, using cluster analyses, according to the

type of sources respondents consulted to obtain information about the destination. Five clusters emerged:

(i) destination based search;

(ii) commercial printed material search;

(iii) media and books search;

(iv) only friends and relatives search; and

(v) guide dependent search.

Consequently, the recoded variable, representing the type of information sources consulted for obtaining information about the destination, was a nominal variable with six categories (the five clusters that emerged and the option of not searching for information) (the operationalization of this variable will be described in more detail in chapter 9).

- This variable was introduced in regressions by creating five binary variables corresponding to the five clusters that emerged from the cluster analysis.

Figure 8.6. – Index of the strength of search

SE = Standardized (TIME) + Standardized (SOURCES) + Standardized (ATTRIBUTES)

Key:
SE - Search effort for obtaining information about the destination
TIME – time spent searching information about the destination (without outliers)
SOURCES – number of information sources consulted in order to obtain information about the destination (without outliers)
ATTRIBUTES - number of destination attributes for which information was sought (without outliers)

Image of the destination (area visited, strongest competitor, weakest competitor):

- Original variable:
  - 28 items assessed with a Likert-type scale with five levels (from 1=not important to 5=extremely important). These 28 items referred to the destination's ability to satisfy motivations, and to the attractions and facilities at the destination. The items were used to assess the level of attractiveness of the destination.
- Recoded variable: Two PCAs (Principal Components Analyses) were carried out. One of the PCAs was done using the items concerning the attractions and, the other one, using the items corresponding to the destination's ability to satisfy motivations (the operationalization of these variables will be described in more detail in chapter 9). Four factors emerged from the PCA concerning the attractions and three from the PCA concerning the motivations. The recoded variables were the following:
  - **Image of the destination in terms of nature**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing attractions related to nature;
  - **Image of the destination in terms of culture**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing attractions related to culture;
  - **Image of the destination in terms of peacefulness**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing attractions related to peacefulness;
  - **Image of the destination in terms of beach and climate**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing attractions related to beach and climate;
  - **Image of the destination in terms of facilities**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing facilities[9];

[9] The items related to facilities were not factor analyzed because only five items related to facilities. Consequently, the image of the destination in terms of facilities corresponded to the average of these five items.

- **Image of the destination in terms of ability to satisfy motivations related to socialization**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the ability to satisfy motivations related to socialization;
- **Image of the destination in terms of ability to satisfy motivations related to "escape and relaxation"**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the ability to satisfy motivations related to "escape and relaxation";
- **Image of the destination in terms of ability to satisfy motivations related to novelty**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the ability to satisfy motivations related to novelty.

Constraints to travel to the destination (area visited, strongest competitor, weakest competitor):

- Original variable: 10 items assessed with a Likert-type scale with five levels (from 1="did not make it difficult" to 5="made it extremely difficult").
- Recoded variable: A PCA was carried out to identify factors that represented different types of constraints. One item was excluded after the analysis and three factors emerged, corresponding to the three new constraint variables (the operationalization of this variable will be described in more detail in chapter 9):
  - **Financial constraints**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the financial constraints;
  - **Time constraints**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the time constraints;
  - **Accessibility constraints**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the accessibility constraints.

Involvement with the destination (area visited, strongest competitor, weakest competitor):

- Original variable: 8 items assessed with a Likert-type scale with five levels (from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree). The 8 items corresponded to the items from the Dimanche *et al.* (1991) involvement scale (which is an adaptation of Laurent and Kaupferer's scale (1985) to a leisure and tourism context) that referred to the facets of involvement that were not related to risk.
- Recoded variable: two variables were created in order to represent two facets of involvement – interest/pleasure[10] and sign. Cronbach alphas were calculated to test the reliability of the scale (group of items) used for measuring each facet. Consequently, the two following variables were created (the operationalization of this variable will be described in more detail in chapter 9):
  - **Interest/pleasure**: interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the interest/pleasure facet;
  - **Sign** – interval variable that corresponded to the average of the items representing the sign facet.

Position of the destinations in relation to competing destinations:

Several approaches were used to assess the positioning of the destinations.

- **Overall positioning of the destination**: two binary variables were used to represent the last consideration set where the destination had been included (the operationalization of these variables will be described in more detail in chapter 10):
  - **Area visited vs. strongest competitor**: binary variable with two categories (1- area chosen as a destination to visit; 0-destination only included in the late consideration set and not in subsequent sets);

[10] The items corresponding to importance and pleasure were included in the same facet of involvement because they were strongly correlated.

- **Area visited vs. weakest competitor**: binary variable with two categories (1-area chosen as a destination to visit; 0-destination only included in the early consideration set and not in subsequent sets);

- **Number and type of significant differences among destinations**: paired-samples t tests were carried out in order to identify the significant differences that existed among the following destinations: (i) destinations chosen as a place to visit; (ii) destinations only included in the late consideration set and not in subsequent sets (strongest competitors); and (iii) destinations only included in the early consideration set and not in subsequent sets (weakest competitors) (the procedures followed will be further described in chapter 10).

8.6. Conclusion

Difficulties in developing a questionnaire for this thesis were, in great part, overcome with the help of the exploratory study. The exploratory study was especially helpful in identifying items that were most important for respondents and that, as a consequence, should be retained in the questionnaire.

Development of the final questionnaire required some decisions to be made concerning the list of items of determinants of positioning that should be included in the final questionnaire. These decisions included excluding items very similar to other items considered and reassigning items to other lists which seemed to be more appropriate than those where they had been originally included (e.g. some items concerning motivations that were closely related to specific types of attractions were reassigned to the list of attractions with a slightly different formulation).

The final questionnaire was divided into three parts and was designed to collect information about three destinations belonging to different consideration sets – the destination visited and two other destinations that respondents had considered visiting while planning the trip -, as well as socio-economic data about respondents.

The sample size was defined by the need to ensure a confidence level of 95%. Financial and time constraints led to the determination of the temporal period when the study was undertaken - from the middle of June until the end of August. A wide range of limitations made it difficult to identify the population of the visitors of both protected areas in that temporal period. Some of these were:

- the data collected by protected areas were limited only to some visitors of these areas (those who contacted facilities at the park, who participated in guided tours and/or used nature houses located in the park);
- some statistical data were only available by municipality and the municipalities did not match the borders of the parks;
- some of the statistical data available about municipalities included in the park also encompassed persons that are not considered to be qualified respondents for this thesis (e.g. those travelling for business purposes).

Given the impossibility of identifying the population of the study, the sample was defined based on statistical data about the guests of hotel establishments of the area where the park was located. A stratified sampling procedure, based on the nationality of visitors, was adopted in order to create representative samples. The chapter also reported that it was more difficult to arrive to a good population profile of visitors to the Sintra park than of visitors to the Gerês park. There is a higher proportion of Portuguese travelling for purposes other than leisure in the Lisbon and Tejo Valley – the NUT II where the Sintra park is located – than in the North NUT II – the NUT II where the Gerês park is located.

Finally, the operationalization of the variables showed that it was decided to recode many of the variables included in the questionnaire. This decision was taken in order to facilitate the data analysis and to carry out some of the statistical analyses. The next chapter profiles the sample of the study.

PART III – FINDINGS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

CHAPTER 9 - PROFILE OF THE GERÊS AND SINTRA SAMPLES

9.1. INTRODUCTION

The first purpose of this chapter is to provide a characterization of the sample in terms of socio-demographics, behaviour and attitudes towards the area visited – the Gerês or Sintra park. A second objective of this chapter is to compare the samples of the two parks and to evaluate whether they are different in terms of socio-demographics, behavioural characteristics or attitudes towards the area visited. Finally, as some of the hypotheses suggested in the thesis were only tested among individuals who considered visiting 2 or more alternate destinations (besides the area visited), this chapter ends with an identification of specificities of this group.

Data were analyzed using the SPSS software and profiled by frequencies and averages. In order to compare the Gerês and Sintra samples, chi-square tests and independent-samples t tests were used.

9.2. DESCRIPTION OF THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

A total of 1,677 visitors of protected areas were interviewed. 1,115 of the respondents were visiting Gerês National Park and 562 were visiting Sintra Natural Park (table 9.1). The administration of questionnaires took place in the period between the 15th of June and the end of August 2002 but in both Gerês and Sintra more than 90% of the questionnaires were completed in July and August. An effort was made to administer the questionnaires both at weekends and on week days. In Gerês there was almost a balance between the number of questionnaires done in weekends (56% of the questionnaires) and week days (44%). However, in Sintra, 83% of the questionnaires were completed on week days. This reflected the difficulty of interviewing people on weekends, because of the high number

visiting Sintra at weekends and the high percentage of excursionists among those visitors (making it difficult to identify tourists).

Table 9.1. – Administration of the questionnaire – Time and place

Period of time during which the questionnaires were carried out

		Gerês sample		Sintra sample	
		N	(%)	N	(%)
Month	June	73	6.55	21	3.74
	July	596	53.45	63	11.21
	August	446	40.00	478	85.05
	Total	1,115	100	562	100
Period of the week	Week days	496	44.48	466	82.92
	Weekends	619	55.52	96	17.08
	Total	1,115	100	562	100

Sites where the questionnaires administered in Gerês were carried out

	Gerês sample	
	N	(%)
Vila do Gerês	537	48.16
Lindoso	162	14.53
Portela do Homem	110	9.87
Vilarinho das Furnas museum	60	5.38
Castro Laboreiro	59	5.29
Barragem da Caniçada	47	4.22
Vidoeiro	30	2.69
Swimming-pools of the Vila do Gerês	23	2.06
Vilarinho das Furnas	20	1.79
Cascata do Arado	19	1.70
Camping site of Cerdeira	14	1.26
Other	34	3.05
Total	1,115	100

In the Sintra Natural Park, all questionnaires were administered in front of the Vila's Palace, due to this being a central site and a majority of tourists visiting this Natural Park being likely to pass it. These travellers visited a large number of places in the area of the Park (this will be shown later, in an analysis of the activities undertaken by travellers interviewed in front of the Vila Palace). In the Gerês National Park it was more difficult to find a central location which a majority of Park visitors were likely to visit. In consequence of this, 48% of the questionnaires were completed in Gerês Village (the site in the Park with most tourism accommodation capacity) and the rest of the questionnaires were administered at other sites such as Lindoso (15% of the questionnaires were completed there), Portela do Homem (10%), Vilarinho das Furnas Museum (5%), Castro Laboreiro (5%) and Barragem da Caniçada (4%).

9.3. SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILES OF THE SAMPLES

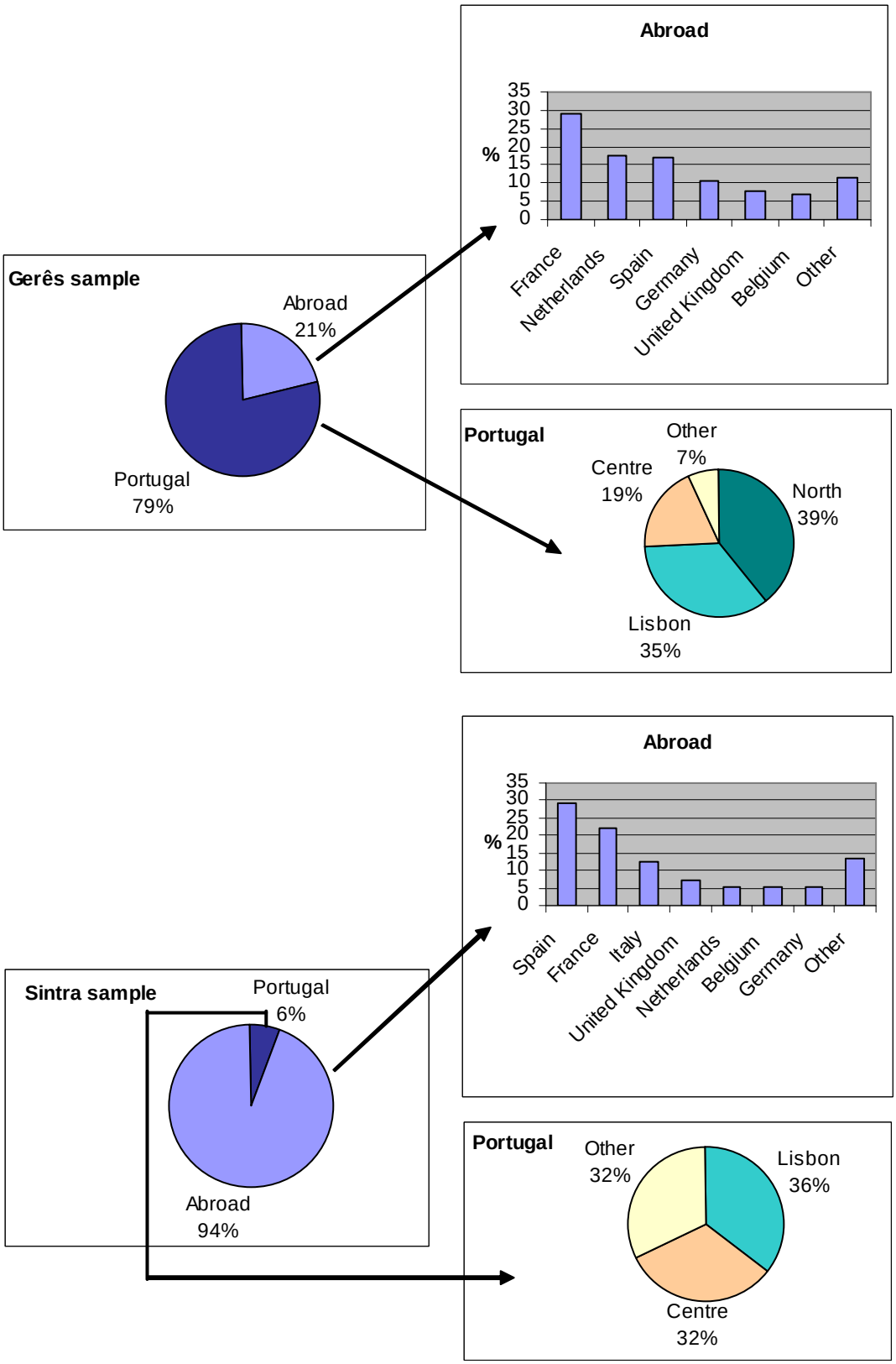
The two groups of visitors were compared using chi-square tests and independent-samples t tests. The aim of this section is to characterize the Gerês and Sintra samples in terms of socio-economic features.

The total sample (which includes both the Gerês and Sintra samples) is quite balanced in terms of Portuguese and foreigners. However, the samples of the two parks differed widely in that a majority of visitors interviewed in Gerês were Portuguese (79%), whereas most respondents in Sintra (94%) were foreigners (X^2=787.991; sig.=0.000) (table 9.2). The foreigners who visited Gerês came primarily from France (29%), Netherlands (18%), Spain (17%), Germany (10%), United Kingdom (8%) and Belgium (7%) (figure 9.1). A majority of the foreigners who visited Sintra came from Spain (29%), France (22%), Italy (13%) and United Kingdom (7%). In both Gerês and Sintra, visitors from the nearest neighbour countries – Spain and France – represented a good proportion of the foreign visitors (more than 45%). However, these two Portuguese destinations also attracted a high quantity of people from other countries. For example, Gerês included a high number of Dutch (18% of the foreign visitors of Gerês) and Germans (10%), whereas Sintra had a high quantity of Italians (13% of the foreign visitors of Sintra).

Table 9.2. – Place of residence of the respondents, differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples (Chi-square tests)

	Gerês sample		Sintra sample		Total		Sig.	Pearson chi--square	df
	N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column			
Place of residence									
Portugal	876	78.57	35	6.23	911	54.32			
Abroad	239	21.43	527	93.77	766	45.68	0.000	787.991	1
Total	1,115	100.00	562	100.00	1,677	100.00			

Figure 9.1. – Place of residence of the respondents



Although both samples included Portuguese from all over the country, there was a predominance of Portuguese living in certain areas. A majority of the Portuguese visiting Gerês (74%) were residents in the North and Lisbon[1] areas of Portugal, and also a significant number (19%) lived in the Centre area (figure 9.1.). A high number of respondents came from the highly urbanized municipalities of Lisbon and Porto, from the surroundings of these municipalities and from the municipalities surrounding the Gerês Park. Amongst the Portuguese visitors of Sintra, there was a prevalence of people from the Lisbon and Centre areas (68%), followed by people from the North (15%) and Alentejo (12%).

There was a good balance in the total sample in gender. However, the Gerês and Sintra samples were significantly different in terms of gender (X^2=5.798; sig.=0.016). There was a higher preponderance of men in the Gerês sample (corresponding to about 55% of the visitors interviewed) and of women in the Sintra sample (representing about 52% of the visitors interviewed) (table 9.3).

In terms of age, the Gerês and the Sintra samples had similar profiles. In both samples, a majority of respondents were between 25 and 44 years old (these represented about 56% of the visitors to Gerês and 70% of the visitors to Sintra), and there was a considerable number of visitors who were between 15 and 24 years old (about 26% of the visitors of Gerês and 18% of the visitors of Sintra) (table 9.4). Others who conducted studies of the ecotourism market (Meric and Hunt, 1998; Holden and Sparrowhawk, 2002) also reported that the cohort of those between 25 and 44 years of age represented the major segment of the ecotourism market, representing more than 40% of respondents interviewed in those studies.

As far as the educational level is concerned, the total sample revealed a high educational level, with about 51% of respondents reporting having finished college or graduate school. However, Sintra visitors had, in general, a higher educational level than the visitors to Gerês (X^2=267.672; sig.=0.000). Most (75%) of those visiting Sintra had completed

[1] Here the designation of Lisbon refers to the NUT II of Lisbon, previously designated as the NUT II of Lisbon and Tejo Valley. However, it is important to consider that the NUT II of Lisbon and the NUT II of Lisbon and Tejo Valley do not correspond exactly to the same geographical area.

College or Graduate School, while only 39% of visitors to Gerês had reached one of these educational levels (table 9.3). The high level of education of the respondents seems to corroborate the findings of many previous studies reporting that the ecotourism market is likely to be highly educated (Silverberg *et al.*, 1996; Zalatan and Gaston, 1996; Meric and Hunt, 1998; Wight, 2001; Galloway, 2002; Kim *et al.*, 2003).

Table 9.3. – Differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples in socio-economic characteristics (Chi-square tests)

	Gerês sample		Sintra sample		Total		Sig.	Pearson chi--square	df
	N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column			
Gender									
female	506	45.38	290	51.60	796	47.47			
male	609	54.62	272	48.40	881	52.53	0.016	5.798	1
Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
Highest grade completed in school									
elementary school	123	11.03	3	0.53	126	7.51			
junior high scool	148	13.27	10	1.78	158	9.42	0.000	267.672	4
high school	406	36.41	128	22.78	534	31.84			
college	390	34.98	302	53.74	692	41.26			
graduate school	48	4.30	119	21.17	167	9.96			
Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
Current economic activity status									
student	209	18.74	101	17.97	310	18.49			
homemaker	20	1.79	4	0.71	24	1.43			
retired	32	2.87	15	2.67	47	2.80	0.356	4.390	4
employed	822	73.72	430	76.51	1,252	74.66			
unemployed	32	2.87	12	2.14	44	2.62			
Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			

Table 9.4. – Differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples in socio-economic characteristics (t tests)

	Gerês sample			Sintra sample			Total			Sig.	t test	df
	N	% by column	Mean	N	% by column	Mean	N	% by column	Mean			
Age												
« 24	286	25.72		103	18.33		389	23.24				
25 to 44	626	56.29	33.26	391	69.57	32.33	1,017	60.75	32.95	0.098	1.654	1,316.35
» 45	200	17.99		68	12.10		268	16.01				
Total	1,112	100		562	100		1,674	100				

Note: Although the variable here presented was originally metric, data was categorized in groups in order to facilitate the analysis of the data. The values presented for the t test correspond to the test where equal variances were not assumed, since there was not a homogeneity of variances. However, the values of the test where equal variances were assumed were very similar.

In terms of the occupational status of respondents, the two samples were very similar. A majority of the visitors were employed (74% in Gerês and 77% in Sintra) and there was a considerable number of students (19% in Gerês and 18% in Sintra) (table 9.3.). In both samples, homemakers, retired and unemployed people represented less than 10% of respondents.

9.4. BEHAVIOUR DURING THE TRIP

In Sintra, as well as in Gerês, a majority of visitors travelled in small groups – usually couples (43% of respondents in Gerês and 61% of respondents in Sintra), or in groups of three or four persons (30% in Gerês and 24% in Sintra) (table 9.5). At both sites, few respondents (fewer than 10%) travelled in large groups (of more than seven people). The small proportion of people travelling in large groups is likely to be influenced by the difficulty in interviewing such groups, especially in Sintra, where many people travelling in big groups came into the Vila Palace guided by a travel guide without spending time outside the Palace.

At both sites, a minority of visitors travelled with people under 15 years old. However, in Gerês there were much more persons travelling with people under 15 years old (26%) than in Sintra (12%) (X^2=46.433; sig.=0.000) (table 9.6).

The car is the means of transport most used to travel to either Gerês or Sintra. It is used by almost all visitors (93%) to go to Gerês whereas it is used by only 60% of the visitors of Sintra (table 9.6). In contrast to what happens with the car, other means of transportation such as the plane, the bus and the train were less used by visitors to Gerês than by visitors to Sintra. The high percentage of visitors to Sintra travelling by plane or train (38% and 34%, respectively) is likely to be due to a majority of these visitors being foreigners and to the existence of a direct train link between Lisbon and Sintra. Only a small minority used

the cab or some means of transport not specified on the questionnaire[2] (less than 5% in each sample). Since each respondent may have used more than one means of transportation, the sum of the percentages is higher than 100%.

Table 9.5. – Differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples in travel behaviour (t tests)

	Gerês sample			Sintra sample			Total			Sig.	t test	df
	N	% by column	Mean	N	% by column	Mean	N	% by column	Mean			
Size of the travel group												
1	15	1.35		21	3.74		36	2.15				
2	474	42.55		342	60.85		816	48.69				
3 to 4	338	30.34	4.63	134	23.84	4.00	472	28.16	4.42	0.169	1.375	1,674.00
5 to 7	179	16.07		41	7.30		220	13.13				
» 8	108	9.69		24	4.27		132	7.88				
Total	1,114	100		562	100		1,676	100				
Duration of the trip (in nights)												
1	96	8.61		9	1.60		105	6.26				
2 to 3	276	24.75		18	3.20		294	17.53				
4 to 7	367	32.91	8.44	132	23.49	16.22	499	29.76	11.05	0.000	-5.215	618.62
8 to 14	200	17.94		227	40.39		427	25.46				
» 15	176	15.78		176	31.32		352	20.99				
Total	1,115	100		562	100		1,677	100				
Duration of the stay in the Park visited (in nights)												
0	149	13.36		419	74.56		568	33.87				
1	128	11.48		64	11.39		192	11.45				
2 to 3	390	34.98	3.69	60	10.68	0.60	450	26.83	2.65	0.000	23.365	1,661.19
4 to 7	339	30.40		13	2.31		352	20.99				
8 to 14	85	7.62		3	0.53		88	5.25				
» 15	24	2.15		3	0.53		27	1.61				
Total	1,115	100		562	100		1,677	100				

Note: Although the variables here presented were originally metric, data was categorized in groups in order to facilitate the analysis of the data. In the cases where there was homogeneity of variances, the values presented for the t tests correspond to the tests where equal variances were assumed. In the other cases, the values correspond to the tests where equal variances were not assumed.

In the total sample, most respondents reported staying between 4 and 7 nights (30% of respondents) or 8 to 14 nights (25%) away from their usual place of residence (table 9.5.). Hence, a majority of respondents (79%) stayed fewer than 15 nights away from home.

[2] Motorbike, boat, bicycle and caravan were the means of transport most cited by respondents who said they used other means of transportation than those explicitly mentioned in the questionnaire.

Table 9.6. – Differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples in travel behaviour (Chi-square tests)

		Gerês sample		Sintra sample		Total		Sig.	Pearson chi--square	df
		N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column			
Presence of people under 15 years old in the travel group										
	no	823	73.81	496	88.26	1,319	78.65			
	yes	292	26.19	66	11.74	358	21.35	0.000	46.433	1
	Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
Means of transport used										
plane	no	1,041	93.36	349	62.10	1,390	82.89			
	yes	74	6.64	213	37.90	287	17.11	0.000	257.469	1
	Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
car	no	82	7.35	225	40.04	307	18.31			
	yes	1,033	92.65	337	59.96	1,370	81.69	0.000	266.861	1
	Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
bus	no	1,032	92.56	476	84.70	1,508	89.92			
	yes	83	7.44	86	15.30	169	10.08	0.000	25.465	1
	Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
train	no	1,071	96.05	371	66.01	1,442	85.99			
	yes	44	3.95	191	33.99	235	14.01	0.000	279.833	1
	Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
cab	no	1,108	99.37	553	98.40	1,661	99.05			
	yes	7	0.63	9	1.60	16	0.95	0.053	3.748	1
	Total	1,115	100	562	100	1,677	100			
Main means of accommodation used										
	hotels/pousadas	194	17.46	202	36.33	396	23.76			
	boarding houses/inns	243	21.87	125	22.48	368	22.08			
	camping sites	435	39.15	100	17.99	535	32.09	0.000	191.906	7
	youth hostels/holiday camps	14	1.26	41	7.37	55	3.30			
	rented private house	81	7.29	33	5.94	114	6.84			
	rural tourism accommodation	76	6.84	8	1.44	84	5.04			
	own accommodation	29	2.61	4	0.72	33	1.98			
	house of friends/relatives	39	3.51	43	7.73	82	4.92			
	Total	1,111	100	556	100	1,667	100			

However, on average, travellers interviewed in Sintra were travelling for a longer period of time than those interviewed in Gerês (t test= -5.215; sig.=0.000) (table 9.5). Whereas a majority (66%) of travellers interviewed in Gerês stayed up to seven nights (about 1 week) away from their usual place of residence, in Sintra a majority (72%) were staying more than 7 nights away from home with 31% staying away from home for more then 14 nights. In Gerês, a high proportion of respondents (33%) were on short stays away from home (1 to 3 nights). The high discrepancy between the duration of travel between respondents visiting Sintra and those visiting Gerês may be related to a majority of Sintra's visitors being foreigners, with people being more likely to stay away from home for longer periods

of time when travelling to a foreign country than when travelling in their home country. Additionally, whereas Sintra is located close to an urban centre that already attracts a lot of visitors – Lisbon (Lisbon municipality received about 2 million guests in hotel establishments in 2002) - the most important urban centre close to Gerês – Braga – received about 130 thousand guests in hotel establishments in 2002) (INE, 2006).

Although visitors to Gerês were likely to undertake shorter trips than those to Sintra, they were likely to stay more time in the park visited than people visiting Sintra (t test=23.365; sig.=0.000) (table 9.5). A majority (75%) of visitors to Sintra didn't stay any nights in the area of the Park, and a majority of those who stayed at least one night in the park (88%), stayed for only 1 to 3 nights. In contrast, only 13% of the visitors to Gerês did not stay any night in the area of the Gerês Park. A large proportion of visitors to Gerês (46%) were planning to have short stays in Gerês (1 to 3 nights), but 30% planned to stay in the Park for a period of between four and seven nights.

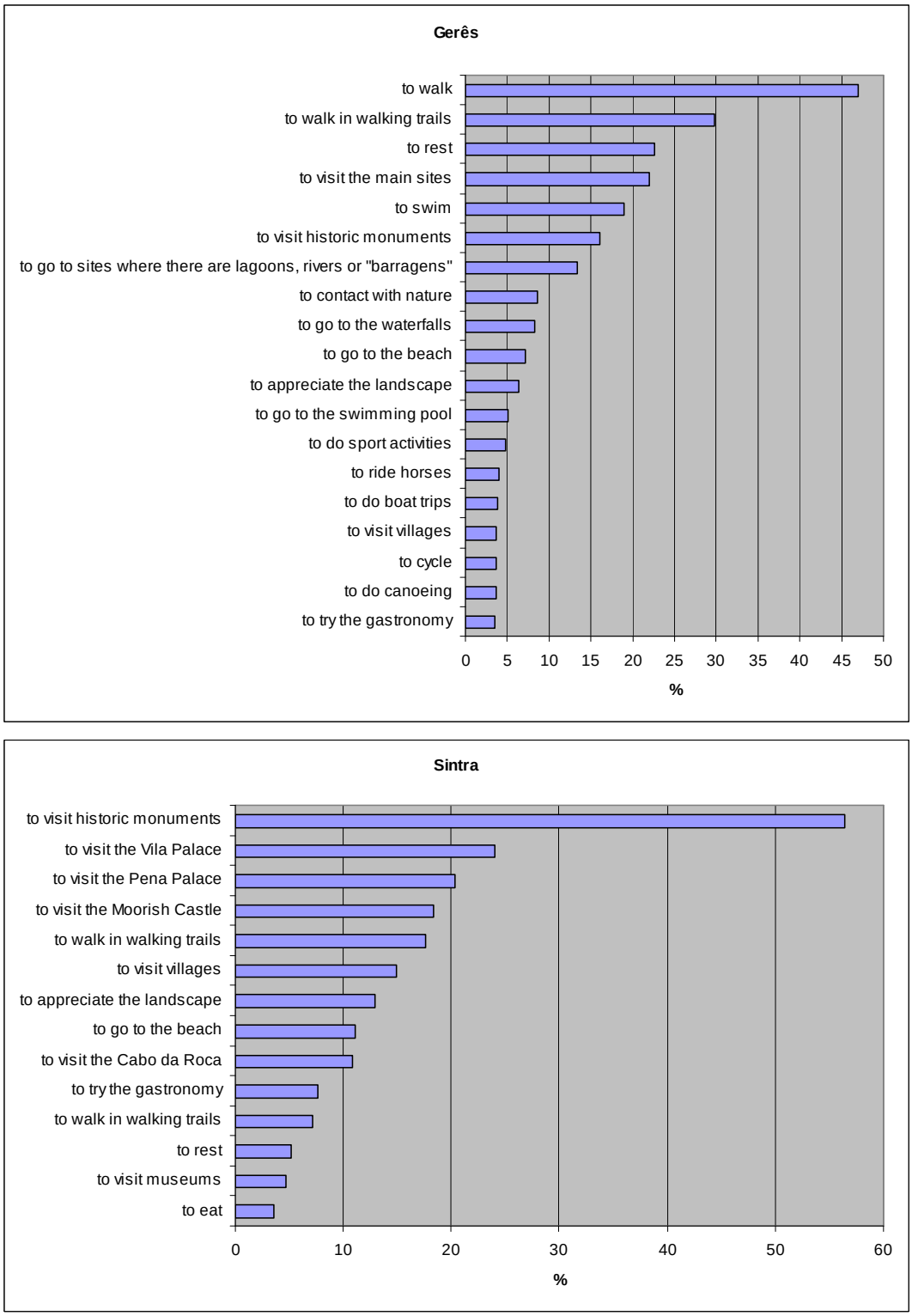
Among the total sample, camping sites were used by most respondents (32%), with hotels/*pousadas* and boarding houses/inns being used by 24% and 22%, respectively (table 9.6.). There were significant differences between the two samples in terms of means of accommodation used (X^2=191.906; sig.=0.000). Visitors to Gerês primarily chose "camping sites" and "boarding houses and inns", whereas the means of accommodation preferred by visitors to Sintra were "hotels and *pousadas*", followed by "boarding houses and inns". This may be related to the small number of hotels that exist in the Gerês park, compared to the Sintra park, and to Gerês having more camping sites than Sintra (see chapter 7). Youth hostels were much more used by visitors to Sintra than by visitors to Gerês, with the opposite happening with rural tourism accommodations (table 9.6). However, at both sites, the means of accommodation preferred by visitors were "hotels and *pousadas*", "boarding houses and inns" and "camping sites". At each site, more than 75% of visitors chose one of these three types of accommodation.

The activities that most visitors did were walking, resting, visiting sites where cultural heritage can be found, contacting with nature, appreciating natural features (e.g. rivers, the landscape), visiting the sites considered to be the most important ones in the area and doing

sports. However, visitors to Gerês showed a higher preference for resting, carrying on activities that permit contacting and appreciating nature (e.g. to walk, to walk in walking trails, contact with nature) and practicing sports (e.g. to swim, to ride horses, to do boat trips, to do canoeing, to cycle) than people visiting Sintra (figure 9.2). In contrast, the Sintra visitors were more likely to visit monuments (the most mentioned ones were Vila Palace – where the questionnaire was being carried out – the Pena Palace and the Moorish Castle), to visit villages and to appreciate the gastronomy than those visiting Gerês. In Sintra, respondents were more likely to indicate specific sites they wanted to visit than in Gerês. In Sintra, the most attractive sites were the Pena Palace, Vila Palace, Moorish Castle and Cabo da Roca. In Gerês, only a minority of respondents referred to specific sites at the Park, with the most widely referenced being Pedra Bela, Vilarinho das Furnas and S. Bento Monastery (each of these was cited by fewer than 2% of respondents).

Naturally, the kind of activities visitors planned was highly related to the tourism attractions and other characteristics of the destinations. Hence, visitors to the Sintra park showed more interest in visiting monuments which may be related to the Sintra park having more classified architectonic heritage than the Gerês park (see chapter 7). However, several of the activities most frequently mentioned by respondents correspond to the preferred activities of ecotourists reported in other studies. For example, walking has been identified as one of the most popular activities in the ecotourism field (Silverberg *et al.*, 1996; Wight, 1996) and resting showed to be an important appeal in ecotourism trips (Wight, 1996; Holden and Sparrowhawk, 2002). It is also widely documented (Wight, 1996; Meric and Hunt, 1998; Galloway, 2002; Holden and Sparrowhawk, 2002) that activities which offer the opportunity to enjoy nature and scenery appeal to ecotourists. Activities related to cultural attractions, were highly valued by respondents interviewed in this thesis, which others have also reported (Wight, 1996; Meric and Hunt, 1998). Several ecotourism studies reviewed by Wight (2001) identified the most popular activities of ecotourists as hiking, water-based activities, admiring nature, and cultural activities.

Figure 9.2. – Activities carried out by respondents



Note: Only activities that were mentioned by at least 3% of the respondents in at least one of the parks are represented in the figure.

9.5. ALTERNATE DESTINATIONS CONSIDERED BY RESPONDENTS

In each questionnaire, respondents were requested to give information about the destination they were visiting (Gerês National Park or Sintra Natural Park) and to indicate alternate destinations which they had thought about while planning the trip but that they would not visit during the trip. Respondents could list up to 10 alternate destinations, but were only asked to give detailed information about the destination they were visiting (Gerês or Sintra) and two alternate destinations:

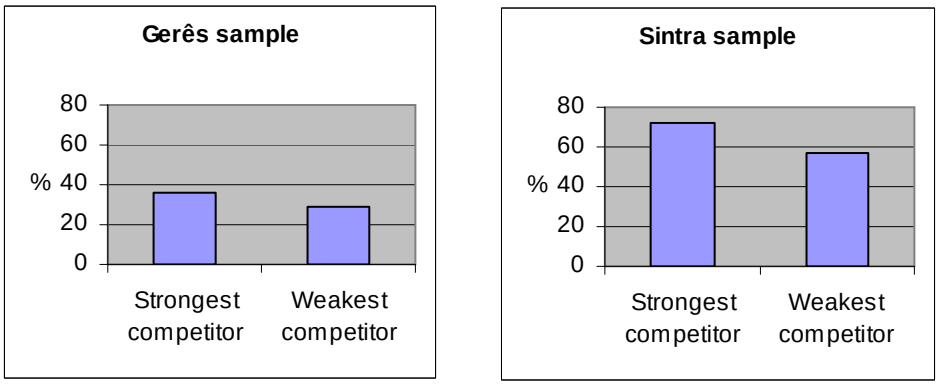
- the one they would most likely have visited if they had not travelled to the destination they were visiting (the strongest competitor of the destination visited);
- and the one they were least likely to have visited if they had not travelled to the destination they were visiting (the weakest competitor of the destination visited).

Thus, detailed information was obtained about a maximum of three destinations – the destination visited, the strongest competitor, and the weakest competitor.

Visitors to Gerês were less likely than those to Sintra to indicate other alternate destinations they had thought about while planning the trip, but that they had not visited during the trip. Consequently, in order to have, at each site, at least 317 questionnaires from respondents who had considered visiting, at least, two destinations other than the destination visited, 1,115 questionnaires were administered to travellers at Gerês and 562 at Sintra.

Only 398 (36%) of the 1,115 visitors to Gerês said that they had thought about alternate destinations while planning the trip to Gerês. From this 398, 80 mentioned having only thought about one alternate destination, whereas 318 had thought about two or more alternate destinations (figure 9.3). 72% of the 562 visitors to Sintra (i.e. 407 visitors) thought about alternate destinations when planning the trip. From these 407, only 87 respondents considered just one alternate destination, with 320 visitors having considered two or more alternate destinations.

Figure 9.3. - Respondents interviewed in each Park who mentioned alternate destinations on which they had thought while planning the trip - % of respondents who indicated strongest and weakest competitors of the destination they were visiting



Differences between people who considered less than 2 alternate destinations and those considering 2 or more alternate destinations will be analysed later in order to identify potential motives that lead people to consider visiting a higher number of alternate destinations.

The destinations represented in tables 9.7 and 9.8 correspond to the destinations classified as strongest or weakest competitors of the park visited by respondents – Gerês or Sintra. The visitors to Gerês were slightly more likely to consider visiting Portuguese destinations than visitors to Sintra. About 68% of the strongest competitors to Gerês and 57% of its weakest competitors were places located in Portugal. In contrast, only 56% of the strongest competitors to Sintra and 50% of its weakest competitors corresponded to destinations located in Portugal. In order to facilitate the analysis of the alternate destinations mentioned by respondents, in tables 9.7 and 9.8 all foreign destinations were categorized by country and Portuguese destinations were categorized by NUT II. The Portuguese destinations were represented in the table exactly as mentioned by respondents.

Sometimes, a destination was indicated by some respondents as the strongest competitor of the area visited and by other respondents as the weakest competitor. For example, some visitors to Sintra (45) indicated Porto as being the strongest competitor to Sintra, whereas others (13) indicated Porto as being the weakest competitor to Sintra (table 9.8).

Table 9.7. – Strongest and weakest competitors of the Parks visited by respondents (Gerês sample)

STRONGEST COMPETITORS	N	(%)
TOTAL OF FOREIGN AND PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**398**	**100**
PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**270**	**67.84**
North	**85**	**21.36**
Trás-os-Montes	11	2.76
Braga	7	1.76
Viana do Castelo	6	1.51
Porto	5	1.26
Vila Real	5	1.26
Caminha	5	1.26
Ponte de Lima	5	1.26
Douro	4	1.01
Montesinho Park	4	1.01
North of Portugal	3	0.75
Chaves	3	0.75
Vila Praia de Âncora	3	0.75
Other sites	24	6.03
Centre	**44**	**11.06**
Serra da Estrela	10	2.51
Coimbra	6	1.51
Figueira da Foz	4	1.01
S.Pedro do Sul	4	1.01
Fátima	3	0.75
Buçaco	3	0.75
Other sites	14	3.52
Lisbon	**21**	**5.28**
Lisbon	9	2.26
Sintra	6	1.51
Tróia	3	0.75
Other sites	3	0.75
Alentejo	**43**	**10.80**
Alentejo	19	4.77
Coast of Alentejo	10	2.51
Porto Covo	6	1.51
Vila Nova de Milfontes	4	1.01
Other sites	4	1.01
Algarve	**46**	**11.56**
Algarve	38	9.55
Specific sites in the Algarve	8	2.01
Açores	**20**	**5.03**
Madeira	**9**	**2.26**
Madeira	8	2.01
Other sites	1	0.25
Regions that involve more than one Nut II	**2**	**0.50**
FOREIGN DESTINATIONS	**128**	**32.16**
Spain	65	16.33
Italy	7	1.76
Brazil	6	1.51
France	6	1.51
United Kingdom	4	1.01
Ireland	4	1.01
Greece	4	1.01
Cape Verde	3	0.75
Dominican Republic	3	0.75
Other countries	19	4.77
Regions that involve more than one country	7	1.76

WEAKEST COMPETITORS	N	(%)
TOTAL OF FOREIGN AND PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**318**	**100**
PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**182**	**57.23**
North	**53**	**16.67**
Braga	5	1.57
Vila Real	3	0.94
Viana do Castelo	3	0.94
Trás-os-Montes	3	0.94
Porto	3	0.94
Foz Côa	3	0.94
Chaves	3	0.94
Castro Laboreiro	3	0.94
Other sites	27	8.49
Centre	**34**	**10.69**
Serra da Estrela	7	2.20
Figueira da Foz	4	1.26
Nazaré	4	1.26
Other sites	19	5.97
Lisbon	**8**	**2.52**
Lisbon	3	0.94
Other sites	5	1.57
Alentejo	**26**	**8.18**
Alentejo	12	3.77
Vila Nova de Milfontes	4	1.26
Coast of Alentejo	4	1.26
Other sites	6	1.89
Algarve	**40**	**12.58**
Algarve	37	11.64
Specific sites in the Algarve	3	0.94
Açores	**10**	**3.14**
Madeira	**6**	**1.89**
Regions that involve more than one Nut II	**5**	**1.57**
FOREIGN DESTINATIONS	**136**	**42.77**
Spain	41	12.89
Brazil	7	2.20
Norway	7	2.20
France	5	1.57
United Kingdom	5	1.57
Italy	5	1.57
Japan	4	1.26
Cuba	4	1.26
India	4	1.26
Morocco	3	0.94
Mexico	3	0.94
Cape Verde	3	0.94
Iceland	3	0.94
Other countries	34	10.69
Regions that involve more than one country	8	2.52

Note: Destinations mentioned by 2 or less respondents were grouped together in the categories "other countries" or "other sites".

Table 9.8. – Strongest and weakest competitors of the Parks visited by respondents (Sintra sample)

STRONGEST COMPETITORS	N	(%)
TOTAL OF FOREIGN AND PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**407**	**100**
PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**228**	**56.02**
North	**82**	**20.15**
Porto	45	11.06
Natural Park of Serra do Alvão	5	1.23
North-East of Portugal	4	0.98
North of Portugal	4	0.98
Peneda Gerês National Park	7	1.72
Braga	3	0.74
Bragança	3	0.74
Other sites	11	2.70
Centre	**52**	**12.78**
Coimbra	15	3.69
Fátima	8	1.97
Óbidos	7	1.72
Nazaré	7	1.72
Tomar	5	1.23
Other sites	10	2.46
Lisbon	**29**	**7.13**
Cascais	8	1.97
Lisbon	8	1.97
Setúbal	4	0.98
Queluz	3	0.74
Other sites	6	1.47
Alentejo	**10**	**2.46**
Évora	6	1.47
Other sites	4	0.98
Algarve	**41**	**10.07**
Algarve	37	9.09
Specific sites in the Algarve	4	0.98
Madeira	**9**	**2.21**
Regions that involve more than one Nut II	**5**	**1.23**
Coast of Portugal	3	0.74
Other sites	2	0.49
FOREIGN DESTINATIONS	**179**	**43.98**
Spain	46	11.30
Italy	18	4.42
Greece	15	3.69
United Kingdom	8	1.97
Turkey	8	1.97
France	8	1.97
India	6	1.47
United States	5	1.23
Morocco	5	1.23
Cuba	5	1.23
Canada	4	0.98
Australia	4	0.98
Ireland	4	0.98
Croatia	3	0.74
Germany	3	0.74
Other countries	35	8.60
Regions that involve more than one country	2	0.49

WEAKEST COMPETITORS	N	(%)
TOTAL OF FOREIGN AND PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**320**	**100**
PORTUGUESE DESTINATIONS	**161**	**50.31**
North	**37**	**11.56**
Porto	13	4.06
North of Portugal	5	1.56
Guimarães	4	1.25
Braga	3	0.94
Other sites	12	3.75
Centre	**39**	**12.19**
Fátima	11	3.44
Nazaré	7	2.19
Coimbra	5	1.56
Figueira da Foz	3	0.94
Aveiro	3	0.94
Peniche	3	0.94
Other sites	7	2.19
Lisbon	**23**	**9.19**
Estoril	8	2.50
Mafra	5	1.56
Setúbal	4	1.25
Cabo da Roca	3	0.94
Other sites	3	0.94
Alentejo	**15**	**4.69**
Évora	9	2.81
Other sites	6	1.88
Algarve	**34**	**10.63**
Algarve	25	7.81
Faro	7	2.19
Other sites	2	0.63
Açores	**9**	**2.81**
Madeira	**2**	**0.63**
Regions that involve more than one Nut II	**2**	**0.63**
FOREIGN DESTINATIONS	**159**	**49.69**
Spain	28	8.75
France	17	5.31
United States	12	3.75
Greece	10	3.13
Brazil	8	2.50
Morocco	8	2.50
Netherlands	7	2.19
Australia	6	1.88
Italy	6	1.88
Ireland	5	1.56
Hungary	5	1.56
Norway	5	1.56
United Kingdom	4	1.25
China	4	1.25
Czech Republic	4	1.25
French Polynesia	3	0.94
Other countries	21	6.56
Regions that involve more than one country	6	1.88

Note: Destinations mentioned by 2 or less respondents were grouped together in the categories "other countries" or "other sites".

There is wide variety amongst the Portuguese destinations classified as strongest and weakest competitors of Gerês. However, some destinations stood out as especially important competitors to Gerês. There were Serra da Estrela, Trás-os-Montes, towns surrounding the Gerês Park (e.g. Braga and Viana do Castelo), the region of Alentejo, Portuguese coastal areas - mainly Algarve and the coast of Alentejo – Lisbon and Açores.

Spain was the main foreign competitor to Gerês, being considered by 65 persons as the strongest competitor to Gerês (this represented 50% of those who indicated a foreign strongest competitor to Gerês) and by 41 people as the weakest competitor of Gerês (this represented 30% of those who indicated a foreign weakest competitor of Gerês). All the other countries mentioned by respondents were less competitive than Spain. Besides Spain, the foreign countries most attractive to visitors of Gerês were Italy, France, the United Kingdom, Norway and Brazil (each of these countries represented between 2.5% and 5% of the foreign competitors to Gerês).

Sintra's major competitors in terms of Portuguese destinations were the regions of Lisbon (especially places around the Sintra park such as Lisbon, Cascais, Estoril and Setúbal), North and the Algarve. A considerable number of visitors to Sintra were mainly interested in visiting specific towns – Porto, Coimbra and Évora – probably because of their cultural heritage. Porto seems to have a particularly important role in this context. The number of respondents who considered visiting the three towns previously mentioned suggests that this Natural Park is being visited by people who appreciate cultural heritage and who value the cultural heritage. Fátima was also a place mentioned by a considerable number of respondents, probably because of its wide promotion abroad.

Like Gerês, Spain is the major foreign competitor to Sintra. However, there are other foreign countries that are competitors to Sintra – Italy, Greece and France. These results reinforce the perspective that cultural heritage acts as an attraction factor at the Sintra Park. The interest of visitors to Sintra in the cultural heritage may also be noticed by the specific places they want to visit in each country. Hence, whereas the Spanish destinations preferred by Gerês visitors were places in the proximity of Gerês (e.g. Galiza and Santiago de Compostela) and coastal areas (e.g. Palma de Maiorca and the Southern coast of Spain),

visitors to Sintra preferred places located near Sintra (e.g. Andalusia) and sites well known for their cultural heritage (e.g. Sevilha).

The high number of visitors considering coastal areas as alternate destinations to Gerês and Sintra may be partially related to the study having been carried out in the summer. However, many visitors mentioned as alternate destinations regions where there are protected areas, and a group of visitors (about 4% of those who identified a strongest competitor of the destination visited) even referred explicitly to protected areas. The protected areas most widely mentioned at Gerês were those of "Serra da Estrela" and "Montesinho", while those mentioned by visitors to Sintra were "Gerês National Park" and "Alvão".

9.6. FAMILIARITY, INVOLVEMENT AND CONSTRAINTS IN RELATION TO THE AREA VISITED

In this section, the sample is described in terms of familiarity, constraints and involvement that respondents reported in relation to the area they were visiting.

Familiarity with the destination was assessed by three items:

- number of previous visits that respondents had made to the Park they were visiting;
- elapsed time since the last visit to the destination (in months);
- duration of travel to the destination (between the tourist's residence and the destination), measured in terms of the time required to travel to the destination.

Constraints were measured using the following ten items:

- the accommodations at the destination were expensive;
- you were too busy;
- the transportation infrastructure to get to the destination was not good;
- travel to the destination was expensive;
- you had difficulty in finding information about how to get to the destination;

- the destination was too far away from where you live;
- you had more important things to do;
- you did not have enough money;
- it was not easy to get there;
- you had difficulty in finding enough time to come to the destination.

Several authors (e.g. Gilbert and Hudson, 2000; Pennington-Gray and Kerstetter, 2002) have studied the structure underlying constraints and suggested some possible dimensions. However, given that the constraint items of previous studies were somewhat different from constraint items considered in this study and there were some doubts about the way these items should be aggregated, factor analyses were conducted.

In each sample, the cases considered in the PCAs corresponded to the total number of destinations for which the visitors to each park provided detailed information - including the area they were visiting, its strongest competitors and its weakest competitors. In Gerês, 1,115 visitors were interviewed and from these 398 had indicated a strongest competitor to the Gerês Park and 318 also indicated a weakest competitor, so the total number of cases factor analyzed in Gerês was 1,831 (1,115+398+318) (table 9.9). In Sintra, the number of cases factor analyzed was 1,289, resulting from the following sum: 562 cases (since 562 respondents were visiting the Sintra Park and provided information about that Park) + 407 (407 visitors of the Sintra Park indicated a strongest competitor of this Park) + 320 (320 visitors also mentioned a weakest competitor) (table 9.9).

Table 9.9. – Number of visitors who provided information about the area they were visiting, about a strongest competitor of that area and about a weakest competitor

	Area visited	Strongest competitor	Weakest competitor	Total
Gerês sample	1,115	398	318	1,831
Sintra sample	562	407	320	1,289

Two separate PCA were carried out – one for the Gerês sample and another for the Sintra sample. Thus, 1,831 cases at Gerês and 1,289 at Sintra (see table 9.9) were factor analyzed using PCA with a varimax rotation.

Factors were extracted based on the eigenvalues' criterion. The item "the destination was too far away from where you live" was eliminated, since it was highly correlated to two factors – those corresponding to financial constraints and accessibility constraints. A similar factor structure emerged in the two samples, being composed by the three following factors (figure 9.4):

- Financial constraints – financial difficulties in travelling to the destination, namely because of the price of the travel or the price of the accommodation;
- Time constraints – difficulties in finding time to go to the destination, namely because of the obligation of doing other kind of things;
- Accessibility constraints – difficulties in having access to the destination, namely because of the geographical accessibility of the region (including transportation infrastructure) or because of the lack of information about the destination.

Figure 9.4. - PCA of the items concerning the constraints to travel to the destinations (Rotated Component Matrixes)

	Gerês sample				Sintra sample			
		Components				Components		
	Com.	Financial constraints	Time constraints	Accessibility constraints	Com.	Time constraints	Financial constraints	Accessibility constraints
accommodations at the destination expensive	0.71	**0.833**			0.64		**0.797**	
travel to the destination was expensive	0.76	**0.849**			0.76		**0.842**	
not have enough money	0.71	**0.811**			0.64	0.390	**0.689**	
you were too busy	0.64		**0.784**		0.61	**0.764**		
more important things to do	0.67		**0.810**		0.67	**0.808**		
difficult find enough time to come to the destination	0.67		**0.769**		0.71	**0.806**		
transportation infrast. to the destination not good	0.60			**0.710**	0.66			**0.772**
difficult find inform.how to get to the destination	0.70			**0.833**	0.71			**0.845**
not easy to get there	0.64	0.367		**0.687**	0.64	0.310	0.318	**0.664**
eigenvalues		3.52	1.39	1.18		3.54	1.31	1.20
% of variance explained		25.67	22.24	19.86		24.16	22.43	20.69
cumulative % of variance explained		25.67	47.91	67.77		24.16	46.59	67.28
Cronbach´s alpha		0.82	0.72	0.68		0.75	0.74	0.72

Key: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Only factor loadings»0.3 are represented in the matrix. Com - Communalities

N=1,778; KMO=0.799
Bartlett's test of sphericity=4,909.663 (sig. 0.000)
Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

N=1,256; KMO=0.791
Bartlett's test of sphericity=3,452.491 (sig. 0.000)
Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

These PCAs seem to meet the standards suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998) for factor analyses, since: KMOs were about 0.80; the Bartlett's test of sphericity had a significance level of 0.000; the three factors explained more than 65% of the variance; all factors had Cronbach's alphas higher than 0.67; all the items were highly correlated with just one

factor and had a high factor loading on that factor; and all the items had communalities higher than 0.5. Each constraints dimension was measured by calculating the average of the constraint items comprising the dimension.

Involvement with the destination was assessed by using 8 items:

- two items representing the "interest/importance" dimension of involvement:
  - "you attach a great importance to a trip to this kind of destination";
  - "this kind of destination interests you a lot";
- three items representing the "pleasure" dimension:
  - "the trip to this kind of destination is a big present to yourself";
  - "you can get a great deal of pleasure from a trip to this kind of destination";
  - "for you, a visit to this kind of destination is a real pleasure";
- three items representing the "sign" dimension:
  - "you can tell a lot about people by whether or not they go to places like this destination";
  - "visiting this kind of destination gives you a glimpse of the type of person you are";
  - "choosing to visit this kind of destination tells a lot about you".

As the dimensions of involvement mentioned above are dimensions of the Laurent and Kapferer scale of involvement and this scale was already widely tested in the literature (see chapter 5), only Cronbach alphas were used to confirm that these dimensions were represented by the items listed above. It was decided to calculate the Cronbach alphas separately for the Gerês and Sintra samples in order to confirm the reliability of the scale.

Although in both samples the three dimensions had high Cronbach alphas in both groups of respondents, the "interest/importance" and "pleasure" dimensions were highly correlated (r=0.74; sig. 0.000 in both samples). In the field of tourism, others have reported the "interest/importance" and the "pleasure" components of the Laurent and Kapeferer's scale were highly correlated. This was reported in several studies reviewed by Havitz and Dimanche (1997) and in those carried out by Dimanche *et al.* (1991), Gursoy and Gavcar (2003) and Hwang *et al.* (2005). Hence, in this thesis, "interest/importance" and "pleasure"

were considered to be one dimension of involvement which was designated as "interest/pleasure". The "interest/pleasure" and "sign" dimensions presented high Cronbach alphas in both samples (table 9.10.), confirming the reliability of these dimensions.

Table 9.10. – Analysis of the reliability of the involvement scale

		Cronbach alpha	
		Gerês sample	Sintra sample
Involvement dimensions	Interest/pleasure	0.84	0.84
	Sign	0.80	0.80

Key:The level of significance of all Cronbach alphas was 0.000.

Having operationalised the measures used to evaluate familiarity, involvement and constraints, it is now possible to compare visitors to Gerês with those to Sintra in terms of these features. Visitors to Gerês are more familiar and higher involved with the area visited than visitors to Sintra (see table 9.11.). Visitors to Gerês were more familiar with the park they were visiting, since they had visited it more times previously (4 times in average) (t test=13.233; sig.=0.000) and lived nearer the park (t test= -7.643; sig.=0.000).

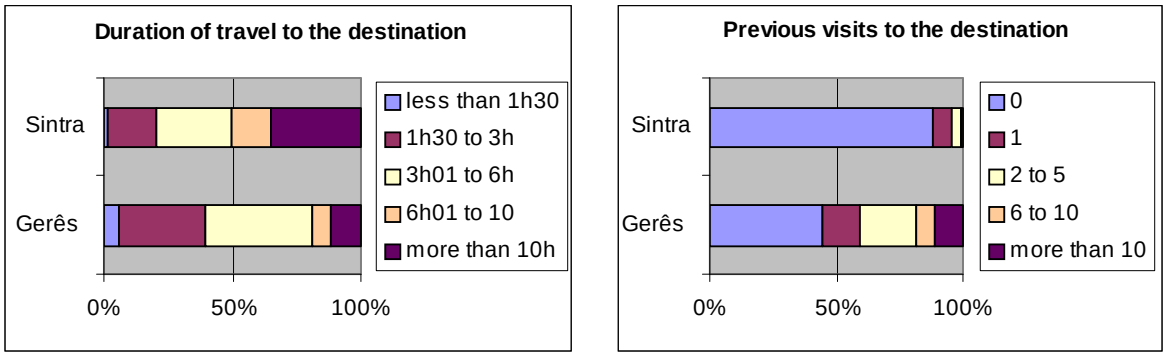
Table 9.11. – Familiarity, involvement and constraints in relation to the area visited – differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples

	Gerês (mean) (N=1,115)	Sintra (mean) (N=562)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
Familiarity with the destinations			
previous visits to the destination	4.01	0.23	(a)
elapsed time since the last visit to the destination (in months)	45.71	57.04	
duration of travel to the destination (in hours)	7.36	13.99	(a)
Involvement with the destinations			
interest/pleasure	4.35	4.17	(a)
sign	3.45	3.17	(a)
Constraints to travel to the destinations			
financial	1.40	1.70	(a)
time	1.47	1.54	(b)
accessibility	1.60	1.56	

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

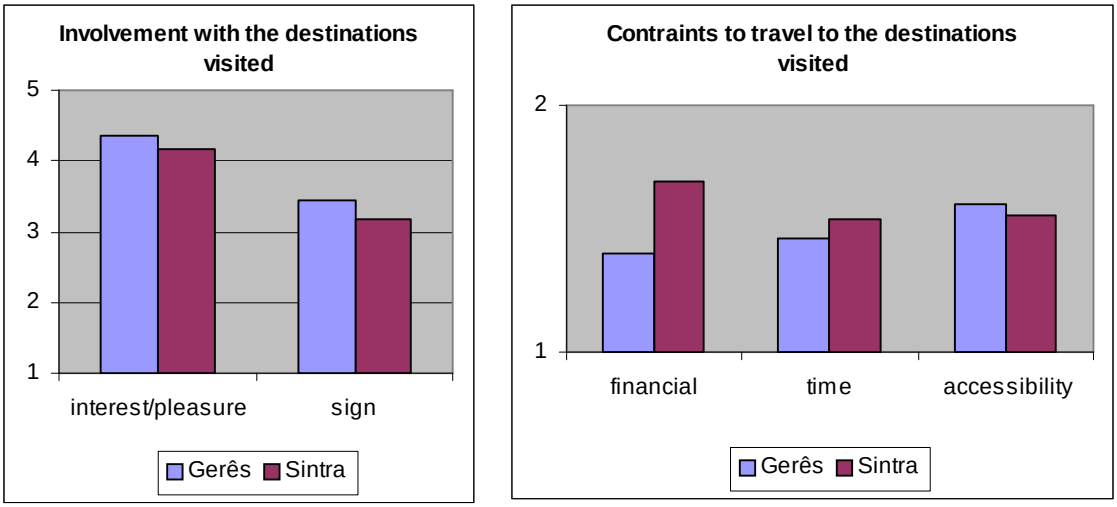
Whereas in the Gerês sample 40% of visitors lived 3h or less away from the Gerês Park and only 11% lived more than 10h away, in the Sintra sample only 20% lived within a 3h distance from the Sintra Park and 35% lived more than a 10h distance (figure 9.5). Additionally, whereas 88% of visitors to Sintra had never visited it before, only 44% of those interviewed in Gerês had never visited that Park previously (figure 9.5.). A considerable number of visitors of Gerês (18%) had already visited it more than 5 times before.

Figure 9.5. – Familiarity with the area visited



Respondents who were visiting Gerês were slightly more involved with the area visited than visitors to Sintra (figure 9.6). They showed more interest and pleasure in visiting the Gerês Park (t test=5.701; sig.=0.000) and they also identified themselves more with the Park (t test=5.858; sig.=0.000). Visitors to Gerês were also less constrained with the visit than the Sintra visitors, especially in terms of financial constraints (t test= -7.723; sig.=0.000) and time constraints (t test= -2.042; sig.=0.000) (figure 9.6). Whereas the major constraints for visiting Sintra were the financial ones, the major constraint to visit Gerês was the accessibility.

Figure 9.6. – Involvement and constraints in relation to the area visited



9.7. INFORMATION SEARCH

9.7.1. Strength of information search

Visitors to Sintra searched for more information about the area visited than visitors to Gerês. This was especially noticeable in the number of information sources visitors consulted where the difference between the two samples was significant at the 0.01 level (table 9.12).

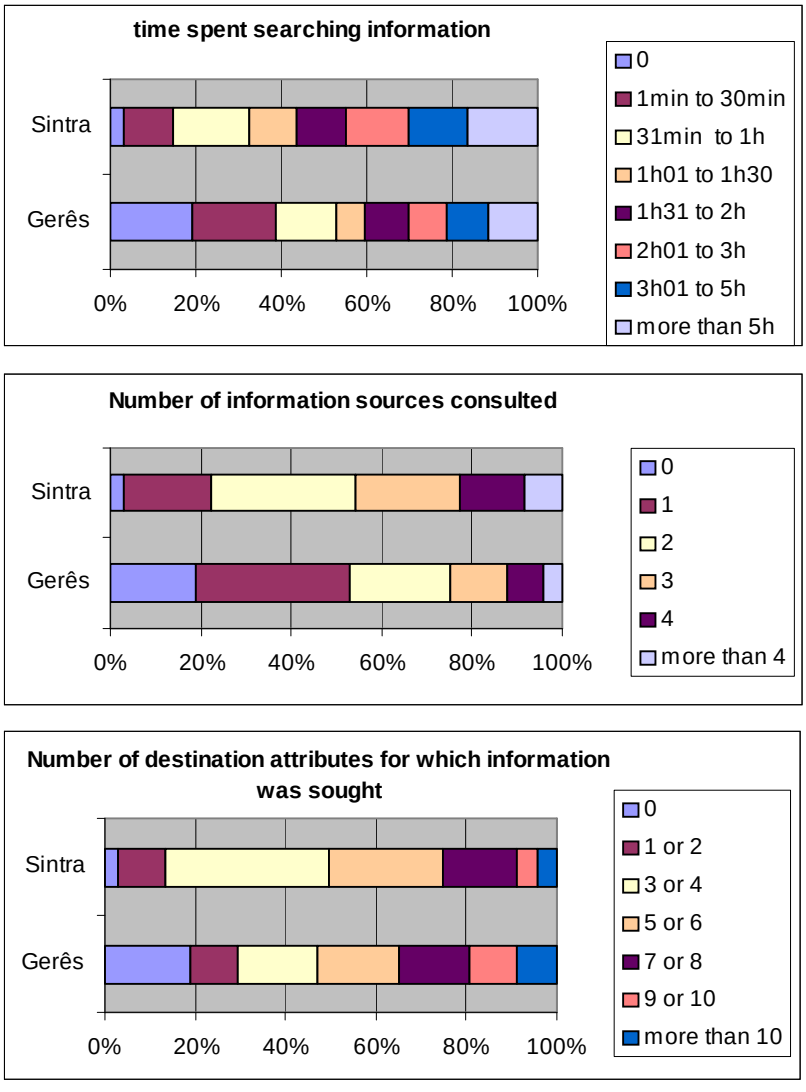
Table 9.12. - Information search about the area visited – differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples

	Gerês (mean) (N=1,115)	Sintra (mean) (N=562)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
time spent searching for information (in minutes)	168.15	239.17	
number of information sources consulted	1.71	2.59	(a)
number of destination attributes for which information was sought	5.07	5.03	

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

In the Gerês sample, there were more visitors who did not search for information about the area visited than in the Sintra sample (figure 9.7.). There were no significant differences between the samples in the time visitors spent searching information about the area visited. In both samples, more than 40% of respondents spent one hour and a half or more searching for information. However, as already mentioned, there was a significant difference between the samples in that those visiting Sintra were likely to consult more information sources than visitors to Gerês. Whereas in Sintra only about 22% of visitors consulted less than two information sources, in the Gerês sample this percentage rose to 53%.

Figure 9.7. - Information search about the area visited

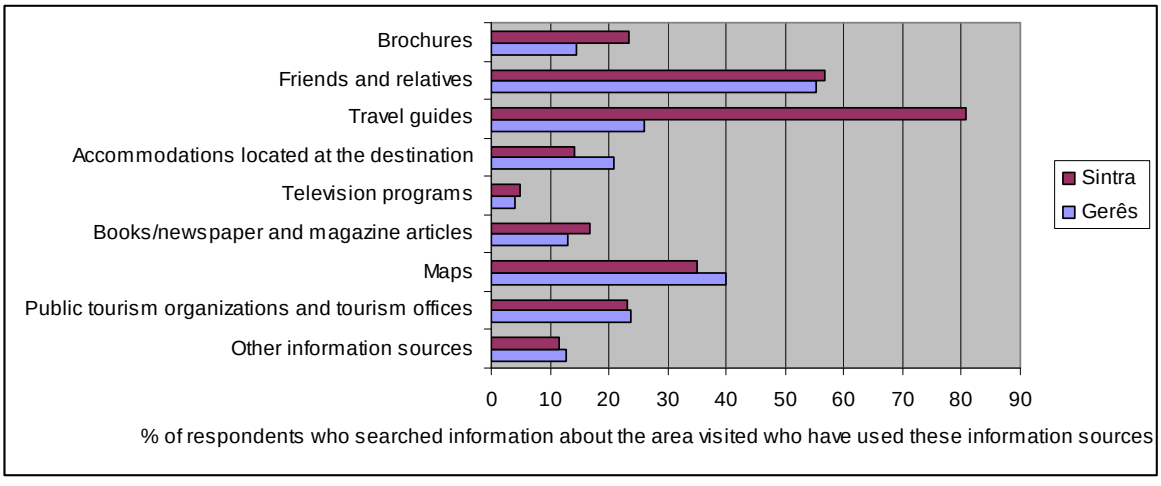


In terms of the number of destination attributes for which information was sought, in both samples about 50% of the respondents searched for information about more than 4 destination attributes and more than 20% of them searched for information about more than six destination attributes.

9.7.2. Direction of information search in terms of the type of information sources consulted

The information sources most widely used were "friends and relatives", travel guides and maps (figure 9.8). In contrast, television programs were the least popular information source amongst respondents. Word-of-mouth and family have been reported by others as important information sources for ecotourists (Meric and Hunt (1998) and Silverberg *et al.* (1996)). There were some significant differences between the type of information sources used by Gerês and Sintra visitors. People visiting Sintra used more guides (X^2=406.170; sig.=0.000), brochures (X^2=19.189; sig.=0.000) and "books/newspapers/magazines" (X^2=3.539; sig.=0.036) to obtain information about the park they were visiting than people visiting Gerês. In contrast, the Gerês visitors used slightly more maps (X^2=3.327; sig.=0.038) and contacted slightly more the means of accommodation of the area visited (X^2=9.724; sig.=0.001) than the visitors to Sintra.

Figure 9.8. - Information sources consulted to obtain information about the area visited



A few respondents (less than 15% in each sample) mentioned having used other information sources besides those included in the questionnaire. In the case of Gerês, these sources were travel agencies (cited by 83% of respondents who used information sources not listed in the questionnaire), followed by transportation companies (13%) and attractions located in the area visited (11%). In the case of Sintra, the sources not included in the questionnaire that were most widely mentioned were travel agencies (cited by 49% of respondents who used information sources not listed in the questionnaire) and attractions located in the area (30%).

It was important for testing the hypotheses to create one variable that measured the direction of search in terms of information sources consulted, that is, one variable which indicated the type of information sources that one respondent had used to obtain information about a destination.

This variable was operationalised using the answers to the time spent collecting information from each of the nine information sources listed in the questionnaire. First, these answers were recoded as binary variables with the following categories – "did not consult this source" and "consulted this source". As there were nine information sources explicitly listed in the questionnaire, nine variables were recoded as binary variables. A hierarchical cluster analysis was then carried out, using as input variables the nine binary variables. A total of 2,472 cases - corresponding to all the destinations for which respondents had collected information[3] - were then grouped using the Ward's method and, as a measure of similarity, the squared Euclidean distance.

Five clusters emerged from the cluster analysis. In order to better characterize these clusters, and to better identify the features that distinguished them, chi-square tests were performed. Nine chi-square tests measured the relationship between the variable that represented the five clusters and the nine binary variables. Each chi-square analysis had, as input variables, the variable that represented the five clusters and, also, one of the binary variables. The results of the tests are reported in table 9.13. Each line gives information

[3] These cases included the areas visited (Gerês and Sintra), and the strongest and weakest competitors.

about the total number of destinations for which a specific source was used, and the percentage of these destinations that belonged to each cluster. For example, in the first line is possible to see that brochures were used to obtain information about 476 destinations, and that the majority of these destinations (66%) were classified in cluster 2 – commercial printed material search. All the chi-square tests were significant (sig.=0.000). The five clusters identified were characterized as follows:

- Cluster 1 – Destination based search: higher use of information sources located at the destination (e.g. means of accommodation located at the destination; public tourism organizations and tourism offices) than in the other clusters; sources not listed in the questionnaire (e.g. travel agents, attractions located at the area visited and transportation companies) were most widely used in this cluster.
- Cluster 2 – Commercial printed material search: High reliance on brochures and maps (although not all the maps may be considered as promotional materials, some of them are provided by organizations that are interested in promoting specific tourism destinations); the use of these sources was also complemented by consulting other sources such as friends and relatives;
- Cluster 3 – Media and books search: More frequent use of mass media (e.g. television programs, newspaper and magazine articles) and books than in the other clusters; in this cluster the search was also complemented by consulting friends and relatives and guides;
- Cluster 4 – Only friends and relatives search: Exclusive dependence from information provided by friends and relatives;
- Cluster 5 – Guides dependent search: Higher reliance on travel guides than in the other clusters; in order to obtain information about these destinations, respondents used almost exclusively travel guides; in some cases the search was complemented by information provided by friends and relatives.

Table 9.13. – Clusters of destinations based on the kind of information sources used to obtain information about the destinations

	Cluster 1 Destination based search N=729 (29.49%)		Cluster 2 Commercial printed mat. search N=542 (21.93%)		Cluster 3 Media and books search N=392 (15.86%)		Cluster 4 Only friends and relatives search N=381 (15.41%)		Cluster 5 Guides dependent search N=428 (17.31%)		Total N=2,472 (100%)		Sig	Pearson chi--square	df
	N	% by row	N	% by row	N	% by row	N	% by row	N	% by row	N	% by row			
Brochures	46	9.66	**316**	**66.39**	114	23.95	0	0.00	0	0.00	476	100	0.000	606.851	4
Friends and relatives	253	18.66	329	24.26	249	18.36	**381**	**28.10**	144	10.62	1,356	100	0.000	389.787	4
Travel guides	244	22.34	285	26.10	205	18.77	0	0.00	**358**	**32.78**	1,092	100	0.000	758.336	4
Accommodations at the destination	**275**	**69.44**	78	19.70	43	10.86	0	0.00	0	0.00	396	100	0.000	566.967	4
Television programs	19	8.48	10	4.46	**195**	**87.05**	0	0.00	0	0.00	224	100	0.000	693.241	4
Books/newspaper and magazine articles	8	1.79	42	9.38	**398**	**88.84**	0	0.00	0	0.00	448	100	0.000	1,624.414	4
Maps	152	18.38	**509**	**61.55**	166	20.07	0	0.00	0	0.00	827	100	0.000	1,001.545	4
Public tourism orgs. and tourism offices	**302**	**59.57**	137	27.02	68	13.41	0	0.00	0	0.00	507	100	0.000	535.022	4
Other information sources	**180**	**61.22**	63	21.43	51	17.35	0	0.00	0	0.00	294	100	0.000	292.687	4

Table 9.14 summarizes the search strategies using type of information sources consulted, that were adopted to obtain information about the area visited by respondents in the Gerês and Sintra samples.

Table 9.14. – Direction of search, in terms of information sources used to obtain information about the area visited

		Gerês		Sintra	
		N	% by column	N	% by column
Direction of search in terms of sources (clusters)	Destination based search	275	31	136	25
	Commercial printed material search	247	27	145	27
	Media and books search	117	13	94	17
	Only friends and relatives search	198	22	22	4
	Guides dependent search	63	7	142	26
	Total	900	100	539	100

Significant differences were found between the strategies used to obtain information about the Gerês and about Sintra (X^2=167.265; sig.=0.000). In terms of the type of sources consulted, the preferred strategies to obtain information about Gerês was "destination based search" (used by 31% of the respondents who searched for information about Gerês), "commercial printed material search" (27%) and "only friends and relatives search" (22%) (table 9.14). To obtain information about Sintra, the most widely used strategies were "commercial printed material search" (adopted by 27% of the respondents), "guide dependent search" (26%) and "destination based search" (25%). Compared to visitors to Gerês, visitors to Sintra were more likely to use "guide dependent search" and less likely to use "only friends and relatives search". This is probably related to a majority of Sintra visitors being foreigners, so having more difficulty in finding friends and relatives who can give them information about Sintra. Additionally, guides seem to be preferred by foreigners, those who live more far away and who probably have less knowledge about the destination.

A considerably percentage of visitors used the internet (figure 9.9). Sintra visitors were more likely to use the internet than Gerês visitors (X^2=45.895; sig.=0.000) which may be due to the fact of a majority of visitors to Sintra being foreigners. This suggests that the internet is a widely used way of obtaining information, especially when destinations are located out of the country of residence of the visitors. The high use of the internet among foreigners who visit Portugal was revealed in the MotivTur study (Cunha *et al.*, 2005), where 5,040 foreigners were interviewed. The information sources most widely used by foreigners interviewed in the Motivtur were the internet and "friends and relatives", with this last source being also the most important one in this thesis.

Visitors to Gerês found the internet to be more important (3.8 on a scale from one 1 to 5) than the visitors to Sintra (3.4) (t test=4.898; sig.=0.000) (figure 9.10.). The internet was particularly used to consult information sources located at the tourism destinations people wanted to visit – tourism accommodation, tourism attractions and "public tourism organizations and tourism offices" (the latter are usually located at the destination people want to visit or, at least, in the same country of the destination) - and transportation companies (figure 9.11.).

Figure 9.9. – Usage of the internet

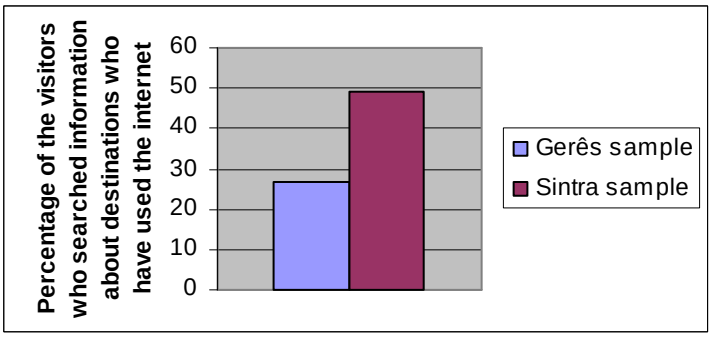


Figure 9.10. – Importance of the internet for obtaining information about the destinations

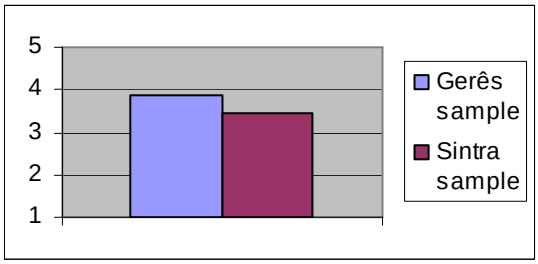
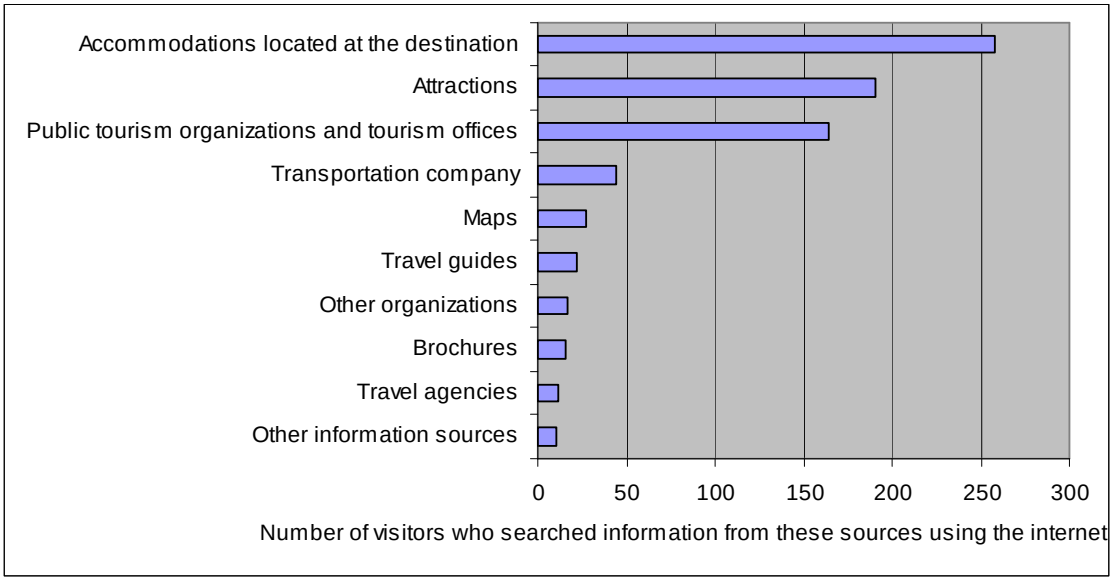


Figure 9.11. – Information sources consulted through the internet



9.7.3. Direction of information search in terms of the type of information sought

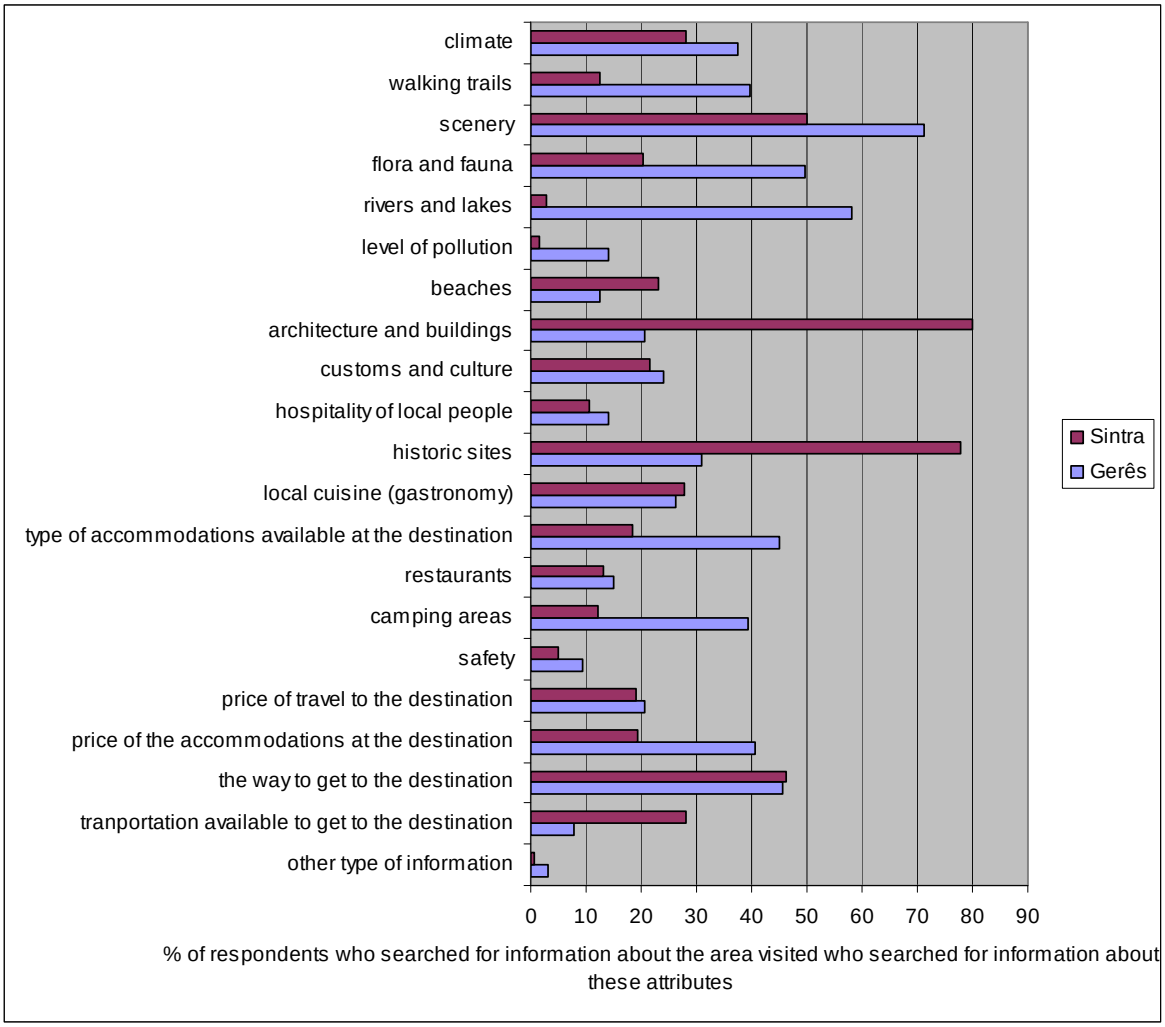
The kind of information most people searched for was related to specific attractions - such as the scenery, "architecture and buildings" and historic sites – and about the way to get to the destination (figure 9.12). Other information in which visitors were interested was the type and price of accommodation available at the destination, and information about other natural attractions – climate, flora and fauna, rivers and lakes.

There was much less effort to obtain information about features related to facilities related to restaurants and safety. This may reflect:

- people did not think there would be any problems with these kinds of facilities; or
- they were not sufficiently important to influence the decision of whether or not to visit the destinations; or
- in some cases the visitors were not considering using these facilities at all.

Similarly, there was not also a high effort to search for information about some features related to attractions such as: hospitality of the local people and level of pollution. These results may be related to the kind of areas visited by respondents – protected areas. However, this may also suggest that some of this information (e.g. level of pollution, hospitality of local people) is not usually provided by those responsible for the marketing of tourism destinations and, in consequence, is not easy to find. That less than half of respondents who searched for information about the area visited sought information about the type and price of transportation available to get to the destination, may be related to the observation that a lot of people travelled to the Gerês and Sintra parks by car. This also helps to explain the high quantity of people searching for information about the way to get to the destination and consulting maps.

Figure 9.12. - Kind of information about the area visited that the respondents searched for



Visitors to Gerês searched for slightly more information about natural attractions than the Sintra visitors, whereas Sintra visitors searched for more information about cultural attractions than those interviewed in Gerês[4] (figure 9.12). This suggests that cultural attractions may have a much more important role in attracting people to Sintra than to Gerês. These data also suggest that natural attractions may have a more preponderant role in Gerês than in Sintra, since the visitors of Gerês collect a lot of information about natural attractions but little information about other kinds of attractions, whereas a considerable

[4] There were significant differences between the two samples concerning the search of information about scenery (X^2=64.279; sig.=0.000), flora and fauna (X^2=120.665; sig.=0.000), rivers and lakes (X^2=437.560; sig.=0.000), walking trails (X^2=118.557; sig.=0.000), architecture and buildings (X^2=486.673; sig.=0.000) and historic sites (X^2=297.750; sig.=0.000).

number of visitors to Sintra search for information about cultural as well as natural attractions. Additionally, whereas the visitors to Gerês were more likely to search information about the level of pollution (X^2=60.011; sig.=0.000), climate (X^2=12.745; sig.=0.000), hospitality of the local people (X^2=3.683; sig.=0.032) and safety (X^2=8.746; sig.=0.002), the Sintra visitors were more likely to search information about beaches (X^2=26.448; sig.=0.000) and transportation to get to the area (X^2=106.932; sig.=0.000). More people in Gerês than in Sintra collecting information about accommodations (e.g. type and price of accommodation available at the destinations, camping sites)[5] may be explained by more of the Gerês sample respondents mentioning that they would stay at least one night in the area.

9.8. IMAGE OF THE AREA VISITED

The image visitors have of the parks they were visiting was measured in three ways:

(i) destinations' ability to satisfy motivations;

(ii) cognitive image of the attractions of the destinations;

(iii) cognitive image of the facilities of the destinations.

The items designed to measure motivations to visit the destinations were factor analyzed. Two factor analyses, one on the sample at each park, were carried out. Similar factor solutions emerged in both samples (figure 9.13)[6]. The three factors that emerged corresponded to motivations frequently referred to in the literature:

- Socialization – contact with people and develop friendships;
- Escape and relaxation – to be in a peaceful and calm environment, to rest and be away from the problems of daily life;
- Novelty – to have new experiences, go to a new environment and learn new things.

[5] Significant differences were found between the two samples relating to the type of accommodation available (X^2=103.446; sig.=0.000), the price of the accommodation (X^2=68.681; sig.=0.000) and the camping sites (X^2=120.719; sig.=0.000).

[6] Although in the Sintra sample the factors were extracted based on the eigenvalue criterion, in the Gerês sample the analysis of the scree plot suggested to consider a three factor solution where the eigenvalue of the third factor was lower than 1 but close to it.

Given the values of the KMO, Bartlett's tests of sphericity, communalities and factor loadings, the analyses achieved the standards indicated for a good factor analysis (according to Hair *et al.*, 1998). The Cronbach's alpha showed that the factors were reliable, with only the novelty factor presenting a Cronbach's alpha slightly lower than 0.6.

Figure 9.13. - PCA of the items concerning the destination's ability to satisfy motivations (Rotated Component Matrixes)

	Gerês sample				Sintra sample			
		Components				Components		
	Com.	Socialization	Escape and relaxation	Novelty	Com.	Socialization	Escape and relaxation	Novelty
to meet new people	0.75	**0.855**			0.77	**0.864**		
to contact with local people	0.63	**0.761**			0.68	**0.781**		
to be with my friends, develop close friendships	0.48	**0.679**			0.51	**0.693**		
to rest	0.68		**0.799**		0.66		**0.796**	
to avoid responsabilities, relax mentally	0.64		**0.770**		0.63		**0.781**	
to experience peace/calm, be away from crowds	0.67		**0.774**		0.55		**0.691**	
to learn about things, expand your knowledge	0.52	0.428		**0.567**	0.64			**0.766**
to see a particular place	0.56			**0.730**	0.49			**0.700**
to experience new things/change of environment	0.63		0.377	**0.691**	0.54			**0.656**
eigenvalues		3.04	1.60	0.92		2.89	1.41	1.16
% of variance explained		33.72	17.82	10.23		32.12	15.66	12.88
cumulative % of variance explained		33.72	51.55	61.78		32.12	47.78	60.66
Cronbach´s alpha		0.70	0.72	0.55		0.72	0.66	0.56

Key: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Only factor loadings»0.3 are represented in the matrix. Com - Communalities

N=1,785; KMO=0.771
Bartlett's test of sphericity =3,601.149(sig. 0.000)
Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

N=1,264; KMO=0.729
Bartlett's test of sphericity =2,323.567(sig. 0.000)
Rotation converged in 4 iterations.

In order to identify a structure of dimensions of destination attractions in both samples (Gerês and Sintra), a PCA of the attractions' items of the competing destinations (strongest and weakest competitors) was carried out[7]. In each sample, the 14 items were factor analyzed, and after a varimax rotation four factors were identified (figure 9.14):

- Nature - strongly correlated with the items: scenery; flora and fauna; walking trails; opportunities for viewing the scenery/being close to nature; and rivers/lakes;

[7] Only competing destinations were considered in these analyses, in order to prevent biases caused by the high number of respondents expressing their perspectives about Gerês and Sintra.

- Cultural attractions – correlated with customs and culture; historic sites; and architecture and buildings;
- Peacefulness – highly associated with lack of crowds; and unpolluted environment;
- Beach environment - strongly correlated with items concerning beach; and climate.

Figure 9.14. - PCA of the items concerning the attractions of the destinations (Rotated Component Matrixes)

	Gerês sample					Sintra sample				
		Components					Components			
	Com.	Nature	Cultural attractions	Peacefulness	Beach environment	Com.	Nature	Cultural attractions	Peacefulness	Beach environment
scenery	0.54	**0.688**				0.63	**0.675**	0.315		
flora and fauna	0.66	**0.795**				0.64	**0.785**			
walking trails	0.58	**0.749**				0.49	**0.599**		0.360	
opport.be close nature	0.64	**0.737**				0.61	**0.743**			
rivers and lakes	0.48	**0.629**				0.45	**0.604**			
customs and culture	0.52	0.362	**0.609**			0.40	0.355	**0.516**		
historic sites	0.76		**0.858**			0.79		**0.885**		
architecture/buildings	0.75		**0.855**			0.78		**0.865**		
lack of crowds	0.75			**0.847**		0.71			**0.818**	
unpolluted environment	0.69	0.397		**0.694**		0.69	0.302		**0.737**	
beaches	0.78				**0.866**	0.73				**0.823**
climate	0.72				**0.791**	0.68			0.329	**0.750**
eigenvalues		3.80	1.91	1.20	0.95		3.51	1.98	1.13	0.96
% variance explained		24.60	16.28	12.35	12.27		21.73	16.26	13.53	11.64
cumul.% var.explained		24.60	40.88	53.23	65.50		21.73	37.99	51.52	63.16
Cronbach´s alpha		0.81	0.72	0.63	0.58		0.77	0.69	0.68	0.54

N=696; KMO=0.79
Bartlett's test of sphericity=2,409.788 (sig. 0.000)
Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

N=703; KMO=0.764
Bartlett's test of sphericity=2,184.520 (sig. 0.000)
Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Key: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
Only factor loadings » 0.3 are represented in the matrix.
Com - Communalities

Two items – gastronomy and hospitality of local people - were excluded from the analyses because in the Gerês sample they were highly correlated with more than one factor. In both samples, the solution that emerged after a varimax rotation had three factors. However, as the eigenvalue of the fourth factor was almost one and the scree plots also pointed to advantages in choosing a four factor solution. The four factor solution was selected. The four factor solutions of the two samples met the criteria suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998) given had KMOs higher than 0.76, Bartlett's test of sphericity with a significance level of 0.000, the four factors explained more than 60% of the variance, all the items were highly

correlated with only one factor and had a high factor loading on that factor. Additionally, a majority of the items had communalities higher than 0.5. The exceptions to this rule were items that presented communalities near 0.5 and belonged to factors with a high Cronbach's alpha. A majority of the factors had a Cronbach's alpha greater than 0.6. Only one factor – beach environment - had a Cronbach's alpha slightly below this value. However, it has been considered acceptable that factors with only two items have a Cronbach's alpha of 0.5 (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Gerês was considered more attractive than Sintra in terms of opportunities for socialization (t test=8.803; sig.=0.000), relaxation (t test=23.431; sig.=0.000), natural attractions (t test=28.241; sig.=0.000), peacefulness (t test=21.140; sig.=0.000), beach environment (t test=3.951; sig.=0.000) and facilities[8] (table 9.15, figure 9.15). Gerês seemed to be especially attractive (with an average of over 4 on the 5-point Likert scale) in terms of opportunities for relaxation, natural attractions and peacefulness. Sintra was more attractive than Gerês in terms of cultural attractions (t test= -14.621; sig.=0.000). Hence, Sintra's highest attractiveness ratings were the cultural attractions and opportunities for new experiences (these features had an average higher than 3.5). Both parks seemed not to have extraordinary facilities, with all kind of facilities being assigned less than 3.7. Sintra was particularly poor in terms of camping areas and other kinds of accommodation (both lower than 2.5).

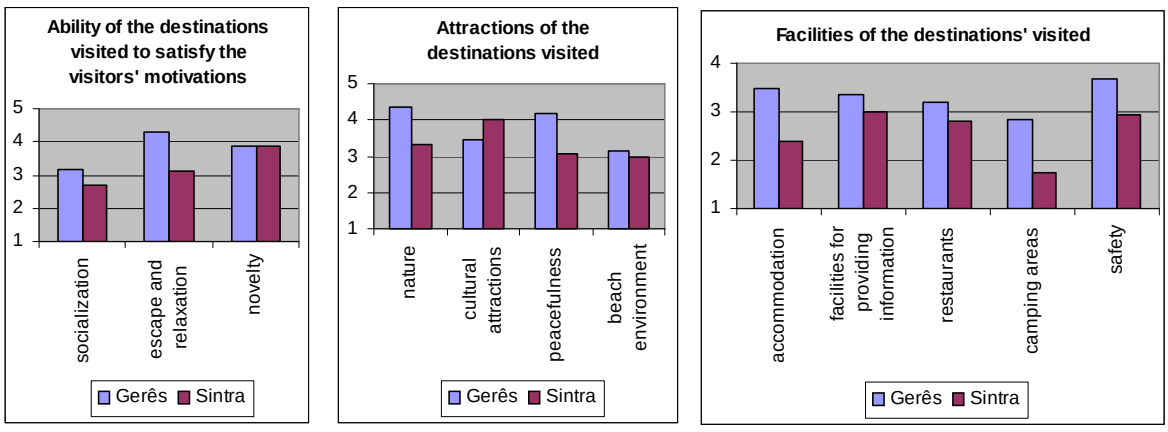
[8] Gerês was superior to Sintra in terms of all the facilities considered in the analyses: accommodation (t test=16.645; sig.=0.000); facilities for providing information (t test=5.281; sig.=0.000); restaurants (t test=5.971; sig.=0.000); camping areas (t test=15.425; sig.=0.000); and safety (t test=10.319; sig.=0.000).

Table 9.15. – Image of the area visited – differences between the Gerês and Sintra samples

	Gerês (mean) (N=1,115)	Sintra (mean) (N=562)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
Destination's ability to satisfy motivations			
socialization	3.16	2.70	(a)
escape and relaxation	4.29	3.10	(a)
novelty	3.88	3.87	
Image of the attributes of the destination			
Attractions			
nature	4.36	3.32	(a)
cultural attractions	3.44	4.01	(a)
peacefulness	4.20	3.09	(a)
beach environment	3.15	2.97	(a)
Facilities			
accommodation	3.47	2.37	(a)
facilities for providing information	3.34	3.00	(a)
restaurants	3.18	2.81	(a)
camping areas	2.82	1.74	(a)
safety	3.66	2.95	(a)

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

Figure 9.15. – Image of the area visited



Given that some of the hypotheses are tested using only respondents who had considered 2 or more alternate destinations while planning their trip, the next section characterizes this group of respondents.

9.9. VISITORS WHO CONSIDERED TWO OR MORE ALTERNATE DESTINATIONS WHILE PLANNING THEIR TRIP

To understand the specificities of respondents who considered 2 or more alternate destinations to the area visited, in each sample, this group of respondents was compared with respondents who considered less than 2 alternate destinations. These two groups were compared using chi-square tests and independent-samples t tests.

In terms of socio-economic and behavioural characteristics, the only consistent difference between the two groups was a higher percentage of people travelling by plane among those who considered visiting 2 or more alternate destinations, than among those who considered less than 2 alternate destinations.

In the Gerês sample, visitors who thought of 2 or more alternate destinations were less familiar with the park visited, given that they had visited it fewer times previously (t test=2.450; sig.=0.015) (table 9.16.). In Sintra, the only significant difference concerning familiarity was that visitors who thought of 2 or more alternate destinations had spent less time without visiting Sintra (t test=1.990; sig.=0.050) (table 9.17.). This indicated that visitors who considered less than 2 alternate destinations were likely to be fewer familiar with the area visited than those who considered more alternate destinations, contrasting with what happened in the Gerês sample.

No significant differences were found in any of the samples on involvement (tables 9.16. and 9.17.). In terms of constraints, the only consistent finding in both samples was that visitors who thought about 2 or more alternate destinations considered the area visited more accessible than those who thought about 2 or fewer alternate destinations[9]. In both samples, those who considered more alternate destinations were those who searched for more information about the area they were visiting. In both samples, those who considered more alternate destinations consulted more information sources and sought for information about more destination attributes.

[9] Significant differences were found both in the Gerês sample (t test=2.321; sig.=0.021) and in the Sintra sample (t test=2.595; sig.=0.010).

The major conclusion from these analyses is that visitors who considered more alternate destinations were likely to make more effort to obtain information about the area, probably to ensure a good decision concerning the selection of the place to visit among the alternate destinations considered. These findings suggest hypotheses that should be tested in future studies.

Table 9.16. - Information search about the area visited and factors with a potential impact in the information search about the area visited – differences between respondents who considered 2 or more alternate destinations and respondents who considered less than 2 alternate destinations (Gerês sample)

	2 or more alternate destinations (mean) (N=313)	less than 2 alternate destinations (mean) (N=802)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
Factors that may have an impact in the information search			
Familiarity with the destinations			
previous visits to the destination	3.16	4.34	(a)
elapsed time since the last visit to the destination (in months)	43.70	46.45	
duration of travel to the destination (in hours)	8.15	7.05	
Involvement with the destinations			
interest/pleasure	4.34	4.36	
sign	3.42	3.46	
Constraints to travel to the destinations			
financial	1.47	1.37	(b)
time	1.48	1.46	
accessibility	1.52	1.63	(b)
Information search about the destinations			
time spent searching for information (in minutes)	307.30	114.54	(b)
number of information sources consulted	2.28	1.49	(a)
number of destination attributes for which information was sought	7.05	4.31	(a)

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

Table 9.17. - Information search about the area visited and factors with a potential impact in the information search about the area visited – differences between respondents who considered 2 or more alternate destinations and respondents who considered less than 2 alternate destinations (Sintra sample)

	2 or more alternate destinations (mean) (N=320)	less than 2 alternate destinations (mean) (N=242)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
Factors that may have an impact in the information search			
Familiarity with the destinations			
previous visits to the destination	0.24	0.22	
elapsed time since the last visit to the destination (in months)	40.03	75.66	(b)
duration of travel to the destination (in hours)	14.99	12.65	
Involvement with the destinations			
interest/pleasure	4.14	4.21	
sign	3.16	3.19	
Constraints to travel to the destinations			
financial	1.72	1.66	
time	1.58	1.50	
accessibility	1.48	1.66	(a)
Information search about the destinations			
time spent searching for information (in minutes)	234.56	245.32	
number of information sources consulted	2.87	2.21	(a)
number of destination attributes for which information was sought	5.31	4.67	(a)

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

In terms of the image of the area visited, in both samples, those who considered 2 or more alternate destinations were likely to have lower perceptions of the park visited (tables 9.18. and 9.19.). In the Gerês sample, significant differences were found on socialization (t test=1.998; sig.=0.046), novelty (t test=2.620; sig.=0.009), cultural attractions (t test=6.166; sig.=0.000), peacefulness (t test=2.072; sig.=0.039) and beach environment (t test=2.967; sig.=0.003). In the Sintra sample, significant differences existed on escape and relaxation (t test=2.253; sig.=0.025), nature (t test=3.592; sig.=0.000), peacefulness (t test=2.879; sig.=0.004), restaurants (t test=2.301; sig.=0.022) and safety (t test=2.465; sig.=0.014). The analysis carried out above suggests that one possible reason for people having smaller consideration sets is that they have a very good perception of the area they planned to visit and so they do not need to research other areas.

Table 9.18. – Image of the area visited – differences between respondents who considered 2 or more alternate destinations and respondents who considered less than 2 alternate destinations (Gerês sample)

	2 or more alternate destinations (mean) (N=313)	less than 2 alternate destinations (mean) (N=802)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
Ability to satisfy some kind of motivations			
socialization	3.06	3.20	(b)
escape and relaxation	4.23	4.32	
novelty	3.78	3.92	(a)
Attractions			
nature	4.33	4.37	
cultural attractions	3.17	3.55	(a)
peacefulness	4.12	4.24	(b)
beach environment	3.02	3.20	(a)
Facilities			
accommodation	3.38	3.51	
facilities for providing information	3.31	3.35	
restaurants	3.13	3.20	
camping areas	2.78	2.84	
safety	3.55	3.71	

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

Table 9.19. – Image of the area visited – differences between respondents who considered 2 or more alternate destinations and respondents who considered less than 2 alternate destinations (Sintra sample)

	2 or more alternate destinations (mean) (N=320)	less than 2 alternate destinations (mean) (N=242)	Independent--samples t tests Sig.
Ability to satisfy some kind of motivations			
socialization	2.69	2.72	
escape and relaxation	3.01	3.21	(b)
novelty	3.92	3.79	
Attractions			
nature	3.22	3.45	(a)
cultural attractions	3.98	4.06	
peacefulness	2.97	3.24	(a)
beach environment	2.94	3.00	
Facilities			
accommodation	2.37	2.38	
facilities for providing information	2.95	3.08	
restaurants	2.71	2.94	(b)
camping areas	1.73	1.74	
safety	2.83	3.11	(a)

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

9.10. CONCLUSION

The total sample was highly balanced in terms of gender and was characterised by people with high levels of education. In both parks, a majority of respondents were people between 25 and 44 years old and employed (although a considerable proportion were also students).

The major differences between Gerês and Sintra visitors in terms of socio-economic features was that a majority of Sintra visitors were foreigners, whereas Gerês visitors were mostly Portuguese, and that Sintra visitors had slightly higher levels of education.

Gerês and Sintra visitors had similar patterns of behaviour during their trips. In both parks, a majority of visitors travelled in small groups (more than 40% in groups of 2 or fewer people), travelled by car, and only a minority travelled with children. However, compared to visitors to the Gerês park, Sintra visitors tended to travel for longer periods and stay less time at the protected area.

Visitors in the total sample preferred to stay in accommodation such as hotels/*pousadas*, boarding houses/inns and camping sites. As far as activities were concerned, preference was for walking, resting, visiting sites of cultural heritage, appreciating and contacting with nature, visiting sites most important in the protected areas and doing sports. Gerês visitors were more likely to use camping sites than Sintra visitors, with the opposite happening with hotels/*pousadas*. Gerês visitors were also more likely to rest, do sports and carry out activities related to nature – contacting and appreciating nature, whereas the Sintra visitors were more likely to carry out activities linked to cultural heritage – visiting monuments and visiting villages – and to appreciate gastronomy.

Sintra visitors appreciation of cultural heritage was also suggested by the alternate destinations these people considered visiting, which included Portuguese towns well known for their cultural heritage – e.g. Porto Coimbra and Évora – and foreign countries

that also have a high reputation for culture – Italy, Greece and France. Other regions were more important alternate destinations for Gerês visitors. These were Serra da Estrela, Trás-os-Montes, Alentejo and Açores. Visitors to both parks were likely to consider visiting destinations in the neighbourhood of the park and the Algarve – revealing they liked beach destinations a lot – and, for foreign destinations the highest preference went to Spain.

In general, respondents had high involvement with the area visited (especially in terms of pleasure and interest for visiting it) and felt low constraints for visiting it. Sintra visitors were slightly more constrained than Gerês visitors, especially in financial terms. Gerês visitors were much more familiar with the area visited, which was corroborated by Sintra visitors tending to use planes more than Gerês visitors to travel to their park.

Visitors to the parks did considerable efforts to search for information about the area visited. In both parks, more than 40% of the visitors spent more than 1 hour and a half searching for information about that destination and about 50% searched for information about more than 4 attributes of the area visited. Sintra visitors used more sources to obtain information than Gerês visitors. This may be related to them being less familiar with the Sintra park.

Destinations based search (consultation of sources located in the destination) and commercial printed material were most important in obtaining information about the area visited, being highly used by visitors in both parks. Conversely, "media and books search" was not important. The friends and relatives search was much more adopted by Gerês visitors whereas guides dependent search was much more used by Sintra visitors. The internet was important, mainly for consulting information sources located at the destination and transportation companies. The internet was more used by Sintra visitors, which suggests that it may be more important for those living far away from a destination.

The information most widely searched for by visitors to the parks was related to specific natural attractions – "flora and fauna", "rivers and lakes" –, specific cultural attractions - architecture/buildings and historic sites -, scenery, climate, the way to get to the destination and the availability and prices of accommodation. Cultural heritage was more important

for visitors to Sintra so they tended to search for more information about cultural heritage than visitors of Gerês, with the opposite happening with information about natural attractions.

Another important conclusion is that visitors to both parks had good image about the parks they were visiting in terms of attractions and ability to satisfy motivations (only the Sintra park performed above the average in ability to promote socialisation). In contrast, visitors do not have such a good image of the parks in terms of facilities, which were classified around or below the midpoint on the scale. The Gerês park performed better than the Sintra park on a majority of attractions – natural, peacefulness and beach environment –, the ability to satisfy the motivations of socialisation of the visitors and on all the facilities considered in the study. The Sintra park only performed better than the Gerês park in terms of cultural attractions.

The visitors who considered more than 2 alternate destinations distinguished from the remaining ones because they were most likely to use the plane to arrive to the park and were also most likely to search information about the park visited, probably to ensure a good destination choice.

CHAPTER 10 – TESTING THE PROPOSED POSITIONING MODEL

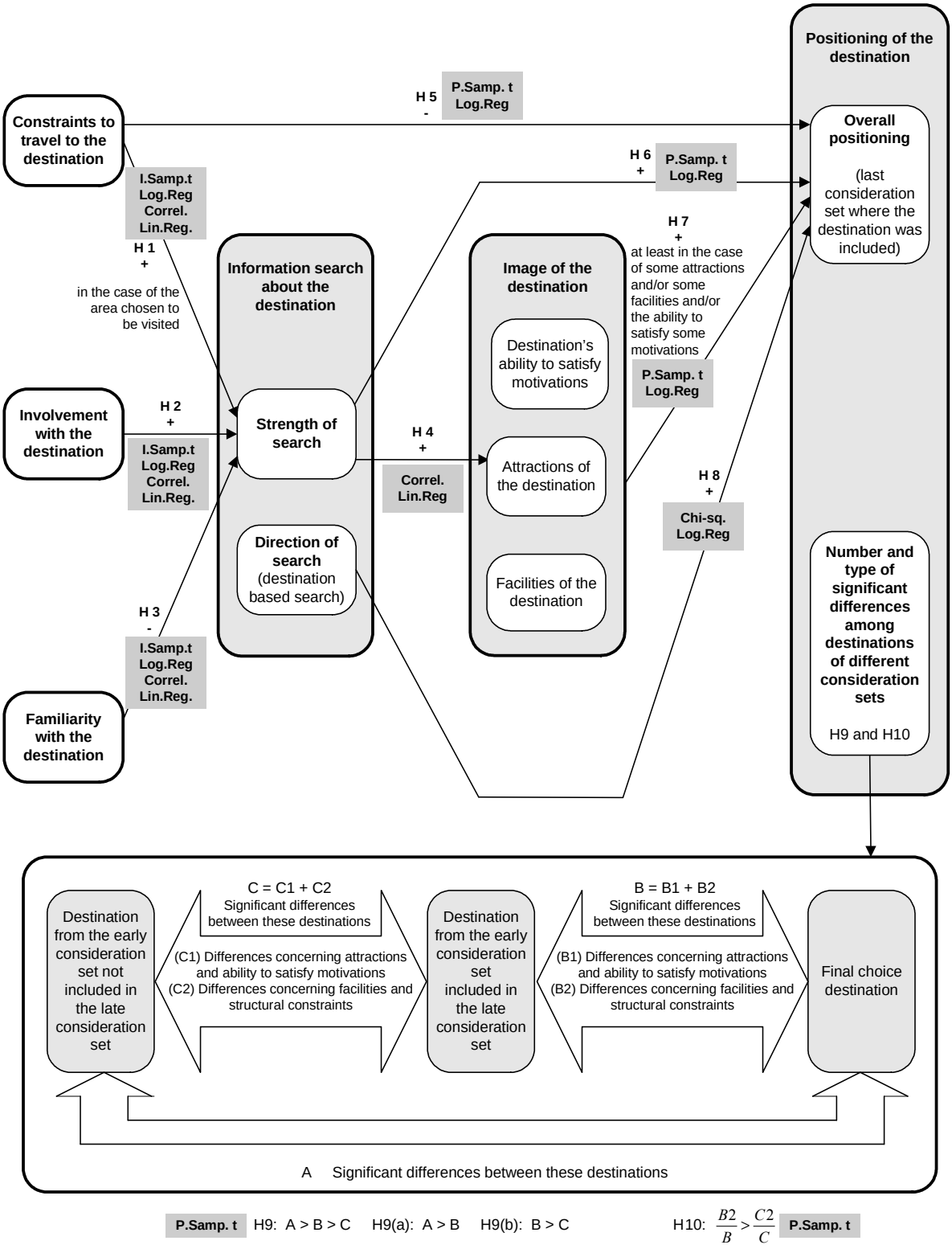
10.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the tests of the hypotheses that underlie the model. The propositions were tested in the two samples (Gerês and Sintra samples), and were considered as being fully supported only when they were confirmed in both samples. Figure 10.1. summarizes the statistical analyses used to test the hypotheses.

The hypotheses concerning the determinants of the strength of search were tested in two stages. In a first stage, t tests and logistic regressions were used to test whether the determinants of search – structural constraints, involvement and familiarity – influenced the decision of whether or not to search. Subsequently, correlations and linear regressions were carried out on data from respondents who searched for information to assess whether the determinants of search influenced the search effort made to obtain information about the destinations.

The impact of strength of search on image was evaluated through correlations and linear regressions. Correlations were carried out between all the variables and then linear regressions were done for 3 dimensions of the destination image. The results of the correlations and regression analyses were than compared.

Figure 10.1. – Summary of the statistical analyses carried out to test the hypotheses



P.Samp. t H9: A > B > C H9(a): A > B H9(b): B > C H10: $\frac{B2}{B} > \frac{C2}{C}$ **P.Samp. t**

Key: **+** positive significant influence; **-** negative significant influence
Correl. – Correlations
Chi-sq. – Chi-square tests
I.Samp. t – Independent-samples t tests
Lin.Reg. – Linear regressions
Log.Reg. – Logistic regressions
P.Samp. t – Paired-samples t tests

The proposed model incorporates several determinants of positioning: structural constraints, the image of the destination (concerning the destinations' ability to satisfy motivations, as well as the attractions and facilities of the destination), the strength of search, and the direction of search. To assess the influence that these determinants had in the positioning of destinations, the area visited was compared with the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor considered by each respondent by using paired-samples t tests. Only respondents who considered 2 alternate destinations besides the area visited were considered in these analyses. After paired-samples t tests were performed, logistic regressions were carried out to assess the explanatory power of the determinants on the probability of the destination being selected as a destination to visit.

Separate statistical analyses were performed for the Gerês sample, for the Sintra sample and, in some instances, for the total sample (comprised of both the Gerês and the Sintra samples).

10.2. DETERMINANTS OF THE STRENGTH OF INFORMATION SEARCH DURING THE PROCESS OF ELABORATION OF THE CONSIDERATION SETS

Hypotheses 1 to 3 propose that the strength of information search is likely to be significantly influenced by: familiarity and involvement with the destinations, and by constraints felt to travel to the destinations. Specifically, these hypotheses state the following:

Hypothesis 1. In the case of the areas chosen to be visited, the **strength of information search** for a destination is likely to be **positively related to** the level of **constraints** people perceive **to travelling to that destination**. Specifically, the strength of information search is likely to be:
(a) positively related to perceived **financial constraints to travelling to that destination**;
(b) positively related to perceived **time constraints to travelling to that destination**;
(c) positively related to perceived **accessibility constraints to travelling to that destination**.

Hypothesis 2. In any consideration set, the **strength of information search** for a destination being considered for a visit, is likely to be **positively related to** the importance and pleasure dimensions of **involvement with that destination**.

Hypothesis 3. In any consideration set, the **strength of information search** for a destination being considered for a visit, is likely to be **negatively related to** level of **familiarity with those destinations**. Specifically, the strength of information search is likely to be:
(a) inversely related to the **number of previous visits** made to that destination;
(b) positively related to the **duration of travel to that destination**;
(c) positively related to the **elapsed time since the last visit to that destination**.

To test these hypotheses two kinds of analyses were undertaken:

- an analysis of the influence of involvement, familiarity and constraints, on the decision of whether or not to search for information about destinations that individuals considered visiting;
- in the case of the individuals who searched for information about the destinations, an analysis of the influence of involvement, familiarity and constraints, on the search effort made to obtain information about the destinations respondents considered visiting; in this case, the information search effort was measured in terms of the time spent searching for information, on the number of information sources consulted and on the number of destination attributes for which information was sought.

The results of the above mentioned analyses will be presented in the next two sections.

10.2.1. The influence of involvement, familiarity and constraints on individuals' decisions of whether or not to search for information about destinations

To test whether or not a decision to search for information about a destination was influenced by involvement, familiarity and constraints, **independent-samples t tests** and binary logistic regressions were used.

Independent-samples t tests were used to compare those who searched and those who did not search in terms of familiarity, involvement and constraints. The tests were carried out for the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor. They were carried out separately for the total sample (table 10.1.), the Gerês and the Sintra samples (appendix 3).

Table 10.1. – Comparison between those who searched information and those who did not search in terms of familiarity, involvement and constraints (total sample)

			Searched		Not searched		Sig.	t test	df
			N	Mean	N	Mean			
Area visited	Familiarity	previous visits	1,439	1.92	227	8.08	0.000	6.329	237.978
		duration of travel to the area	1,434	10.03	226	6.37	0.001	-4.325	376.527
		elapsed time since last visit	505	50.92	178	35.12	0.001	-3.274	455.850
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	1,440	4.28	227	4.36	0.045	2.017	317.990
		sign	1,437	3.35	227	3.43	0.262	1.124	287.014
	Constraints	financial constraints	1,440	1.53	226	1.29	0.000	-5.956	367.389
		time constraints	1,438	1.49	225	1.53	0.401	0.841	281.502
		accessibility constraints	1,439	1.59	226	1.53	0.302	-1.033	1,663.000
Strongest competitor	Familiarity	previous visits	598	1.01	198	2.46	0.001	3.354	223.548
		duration of travel to the area	595	11.67	197	8.31	0.001	-3.341	567.937
		elapsed time since last visit	160	42.90	84	37.55	0.552	-0.596	242.000
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	598	4.16	199	4.11	0.389	-0.863	795.000
		sign	597	3.25	198	3.38	0.087	1.713	793.000
	Constraints	financial constraints	598	2.15	199	2.07	0.411	-0.823	795.000
		time constraints	597	1.98	199	1.94	0.700	-0.385	794.000
		accessibility constraints	598	1.72	199	1.73	0.927	0.092	795.000
Weakest competitor	Familiarity	previous visits	435	1.14	192	1.06	0.758	-0.308	625.000
		duration of travel to the area	432	13.09	189	10.45	0.048	-1.981	619.000
		elapsed time since last visit	115	45.91	61	93.93	0.075	1.812	63.843
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	435	3.92	192	3.99	0.359	0.918	625.000
		sign	434	3.12	192	3.27	0.076	1.775	624.000
	Constraints	financial constraints	435	2.43	192	2.47	0.738	0.335	625.000
		time constraints	435	2.01	192	2.16	0.117	1.571	625.000
		accessibility constraints	435	1.75	191	1.80	0.588	0.542	624.000

Key: In the cases where there was homogeneity of variances, the values of the t tests correspond to the tests where equal variances were assumed. When there was not homogeneity of variances in the t tests, the values of the t tests correspond to those where equal variances were not assumed.

The results of the t tests of all samples are summarized in the table 10.2.. In the case of the area visited and of the strongest competitors, familiarity seems to have a negative influence in the decision to search information about the destination, as postulated. Hence, both for the total sample and for the two samples separately (Gerês and Sintra), the lower the number of previous visits to the destination, the more likely respondents were to search for information about the area visited and its strongest competitors. As far as the weakest competitors were concerned, it was not possible to derive conclusions about the influence

of familiarity because only duration of the travel to the destination had a significant influence on search, and only in the Sintra sample. However, even in this case, familiarity was shown to be negatively related to search. Although previous visits to the destination was the indicator of familiarity with most influence in the decision to search, in some regressions the time needed to travel to the area also was positively related to the decision to search for information as postulated. Hence, in some regressions the more time visitors needed to travel to the destination (i.e. the more distant visitors lived from the park in terms of travel time), the more likely they were to search for information about the destination. The elapsed time since the last visit to the destination was only positively associated with search in the Gerês and total samples in the case of the area visited.

Table 10.2. – Comparison between those who searched information and those who did not search – Summary of the results of t tests

	Independent variables (predictors)	Independent-samples t tests								
		Area visited			Strongest competitor			Weakest competitor		
		Tobal sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Tobal sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Tobal sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample
Familiarity	previous visits	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	duration of travel to the area	+			+		+	+		+
	elapsed time since the last visit	+	+							
Involvement	interest/pleasure	-								
	sign									-
Constraints	financial constraints	+	+	+						
	time constraints									
	accessibility constraints									

Key: **-** independent variables with a negative significant relationship with the strength of search (decision of whether or not to searc
+ independent variables with a positive significant relationship with the strength of search (decision of whether or not to searc

Involvement had a significant influence in the decision of whether or not to search, but only for some kinds of destinations - the area visited in the total sample and the weakest competitor in the Sintra sample. It was not possible to identify a consistent pattern in the influence of interest/pleasure neither sign in the decision to search for information about the destinations.

Financial constraints positively influenced the decision to search for information as hypothesized, in the case of the area visited. However, it was not possible to find a consistent pattern either for the influence of financial constraints in the decision to search about competitors, or for the influence of other constraints on the decision to search. It was

suggested earlier that, in the case of destinations not chosen as destinations to visit, it could be difficult to determine the influence of constraints on search. The reasons underlying this argument are that constraints may either be a motive for searching information so they can be overcome (constraints negotiation), or may act as inhibitors of the visit, diminishing interest in searching for information about it.

Then, **logistic regressions** were used to measure the variance explained by the familiarity, involvement and constraints in the decision of whether or not to search. The dependent variable of the logistic regressions has two categories: did not search for information about the destination (0 - reference category) and searched for information about the destination (1).

The independent variables of the logistic regression are shown in figure 10.2. and include level of involvement with the destination, familiarity with the destination, constraints to travel to the destinations and selected socio-demographic and behaviour characteristics of the visitors. Given the propositions that are being tested in this thesis, the focus on interpretation is on the impact of familiarity, involvement and constraints on the decision of whether or not to search.

A complete specification of the model may be seen in figure 10.2..

In the logistic regressions, the method used for selecting the independent variables was backward elimination based on the likelihood ratio. This method was used to ensure that the independent variables included in the model were significant and, also, because the likelihood ratio is considered as being superior to the Wald statistic (Tabachnick e Fidell, 1996; SPSS Inc, 1999).

Figure 10.2. – Specification of the model of the logistic regressions concerning the decision of whether or not to search for information

$$\text{Prob (event)} = \frac{1}{1+e^{-Z}}$$

event = search information about the destination

$$Z = B_0 + B_1VI + B_2TI + B_3I + B_4S + B_5FC + B_6TC + B_7AC + B_8AGE + B_9ED + B_{10}EC + B_{11}GR + B_{12}CH + B_{13}DT + B_{14}DS + B_{15}AC_{HotelEstablishments} + B_{16}AC_{OtherCollectiveAccommodation} + B_{17}AD + B_{18}\,LOC_{AreaVisited} + B_{19}SEARCH_{AreaVisited}$$

VI – number of previous visits to the destination
TI – duration of travel to the destination
⇨ **Familiarity**

I – interest/pleasure (average value of the items that represented the interest/pleasure component)
S – sign (average value from the items that represented the sign component)
⇨ **Involvement**

FC – financial constraints (average value of the items from the constraints' PCA that represented the component of financial constraints)
TC – time constraints (average value of the items from the constraints' PCA that represented the component of time constraints)
AC – accessibility constraints (average value of the items from the constraints' PCA that represented the component of accessibility constraints)
⇨ **Constraints**

AGE – age
ED –highest level of education completed in school (binary variable): 0 (high school or lower), 1 (college or graduate school)
EC - current economic activity status (binary variable): 1 (employed), 0 (otherwise)
⇨ **Socio-economic data**

GR - size of the travel group
CH - presence of children in the travel group (binary variable): 1 (yes), 0 (no)
DT - duration of the current trip
DS – duration of the stay in the park visited
$AC_{HotelEstab}$ – hotel establishments (binary variable): 1 (stayed in hotel establishments), 0 (stayed in other kind of accommodation)
$AC_{OtherCollectiveAccommodation}$ – other collective accommodation (binary variable): 1 (stayed in other collective accommodation), 0 (stayed in other kind of accommodation)
AD – Number of alternate destinations considered by the visitors
⇨ **Behaviour before and during the travel**

$LOC_{AreaVisited}$ - location of the competitor in relation to the area visited (binary variable): 1 (located in the same country of the area visited), 0 (located in a different country)
$SEARCH_{AreaVisited}$ – strength of search done to obtain information about the area visited (binary variable): 1 (the respondent searched information about the area visited), 0 (did not search information about the area visited)
⇨ **Features referring to the area visited that may have a potential impact**

First, the total sample (Gerês and Sintra visitors) was considered, and separate logistic regressions were carried out for the area visited, for the strongest competitor and for the weakest competitor (table 10.3.). The same process was followed when testing the Gerês and Sintra samples separately (appendix 4). A total of 9 logistic regressions were carried out. The outliers were identified by analyzing standardized residuals, and cases with absolute values superior to 3 were excluded from the model (following the suggestion of Hair *et al.*, 1998). To evaluate appropriateness of the models, classification tables were analyzed as well as the Hosmer and Lemeshow test, the chi-square statistic for the model and the Nagelkerke R^2 value. This suggested that the three logistic regressions had a considerable goodness-of-fit. The logistic regressions presented reasonable Nagelkerke R^2 values, which were especially strong in the case of the area visited (0.63). The logistic regressions of the strongest and weakest competitors had Nagelkerke R^2 values lower than that of the area visited, which suggests that, in the case of the competitors, the independent variables considered had lower power to explain the decision of searching or not searching for information. However, these values were higher when the regressions were carried out on each sample, individually. In the Sintra sample, the Nagelkerke R^2 reached values of 0.30 in the case of the weakest competitor and of 0.35 in the case of the strongest competitor.

The cases correctly classified in all the regressions ranged from 74% to 96%. In the total sample, Gerês sample and Sintra sample, the regressions that classified correctly a higher number of cases were, in decreasing order, those of the area visited, those of the strongest competitor, and, finally, those of to the weakest competitor. The cases relating to those searching for information were easier to classify, probably because there were always more respondents who searched for information than respondents who did not search. The nine regressions also met the assumptions required for this kind of analyses, in that in the contingency table for the Hosmer and Lemeshow test, a majority of the groups had an expected value higher than 5 and had no expected value lower than 1 (SPSS, 1999).

Table 10.3. – Variables that significantly influenced the decision of whether or not to search – Results of logistic regressions of the area visited, strongest competitors and weakest competitors for the total sample (Gerês and Sintra)

		Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Logistic model of the Area visited N=1,524	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	-0.212	0.024	76.067	0.000	0.809	
	Involvement	**interest/pleasure**	-0.611	0.299	4.181	0.041	0.543	
	Constraints	**financial constraints**	2.307	0.445	26.835	0.000	10.046	
		time constraints	-0.828	0.184	20.335	0.000	0.437	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.63
	Socio-economic data	**age**	0.092	0.017	29.883	0.000	1.096	
		economic activity						
		employed	-1.764	0.444	15.763	0.000	0.171	
		otherwise	X					Hosmer and Lemeshow Test
	Behavior before and during the trip	**travel group size**	-0.028	0.008	12.896	0.000	0.972	
		children						
		no	X					
		yes	-1.289	0.298	18.695	0.000	0.275	X^2 = 14.579
		duration of the current trip	0.080	0.031	6.547	0.011	1.083	(sig. 0.068)
		duration of stay in the area visited	-0.163	0.041	16.112	0.000	0.849	
		hotel establishments						
		hotel establishments	1.639	0.351	21.834	0.000	5.152	Model X^2=
		other kind of accommodation	X					=447.691
		other collective accommodation						(sig. 0.000)
		other collective accommodation	3.742	0.490	58.421	0.000	42.180	
		other kind of accommodation	X					
		number of alternate destinations	1.951	0.341	32.631	0.000	7.033	
	Constant		1.182	1.549	0.582	0.445	3.261	
Logistic model of the Strongest competitors N=784	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	-0.074	0.024	9.478	0.002	0.929	
	Involvement	**interest/pleasure**	0.347	0.141	6.056	0.014	1.415	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.19
		sign	-0.249	0.110	5.128	0.024	0.779	
	Socio-economic data	**highest grade in school**						
		high school or lower	X					
		college or graduate school	-0.397	0.190	4.380	0.036	0.672	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration of the current trip**	0.040	0.013	9.746	0.002	1.040	X^2 = 3.003 (sig. 0.934)
		same country of the area visited						
	Features referring to the area visited	no	X					
		yes	-0.517	0.190	7.360	0.007	0.597	
		searched for the area visited						Model X^2=
		no	X					=107.516
		yes	2.676	0.387	47.920	0.000	14.526	(sig. 0.000)
	Constant		-1.809	0.673	7.216	0.007	0.164	
Logistic model of the Weakest competitors N=614	**Familiarity**	**duration of travel to the area**	0.020	0.008	6.184	0.013	1.020	
	Constraints	**time constraints**	-0.178	0.083	4.588	0.032	0.837	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.20
	Socio-economic data	**age**	-0.038	0.009	15.884	0.000	0.963	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration of stay in the area visited**	0.072	0.029	6.031	0.014	1.074	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test
		same country of the area visited						X^2 = 10.696
	Features referring to the area visited	no	X					(sig. 0.220)
		yes	-0.527	0.193	7.468	0.006	0.590	
		searched for the area visited						Model X^2=
		no	X					=91.809
		yes	4.348	0.865	25.287	0.000	77.307	(sig. 0.000)
	Constant		-1.874	0.931	4.056	0.044	0.154	

Key: X - reference category.

The summary of the results of the logistic regressions are shown in table 10.4.. As far as familiarity, involvement and constraints are concerned, results from the logistics regressions reflected the significant differences found in the independent-samples t tests. Only some disparities were noticed because:

- variables highly correlated with other variables already included in the logistic regression were excluded from the logistic model;
- only variables that were able to explain effects not explained by the set of variables already included in the regression were incorporated into the logistic model.

Table 10.4. – Variables that significantly influenced the decision of whether or not to search – Summary of the results of logistic regressions

	Independent variables (predictors)	Logistic model of the area visited			Logistic model of the strongest competitor			Logistic model of the weakest competitor		
		Global sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Global sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Global sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample
Familiarity	previous visits	-	-	-	-	-	-		+	
	duration of travel to the area			+				+		+
Involvement	interest/pleasure	-			+		+			-
	sign			+	-		-			
Constraints	financial constraints	+	+	+						
	time constraints	-	-					-		-
	accessibility constraints									
Socio--economic data	age	+	+				-	-		-
	highest grade in school				-		-			
	economic activity	-	-							
Behavior before and during the trip	travel group size	-	-	-			+			
	children	-								
	duration of the current trip	+			+		+			+
	duration of stay in the area visited	-				+		+		
	hotel establishments	+	+	+						+
	other collective accommodation	+	+							+
	number of alternate destinations	+	+							-
Features referring to the area visited	same country of the area visited	(*)	(*)	(*)	-		-	-		
	searched for the area visited	(*)	(*)	(*)	+	+	+	+	+	+

Key: **-** independent variables with a negative significant relationship with the strength of search (decision of whether or not to search).
+ independent variables with a positive significant relationship with the strength of search (decision of whether or not to search).
(*) not included in the logistic regressions concerning the area visited.

However, the logistic regression results mirror those obtained in the t tests. Similarly to the t tests, the logistic regressions highlighted that familiarity had a negative influence in search in the case of the area visited and strongest competitor, and that financial constraints had a positive impact on search in the case of the area visited. The differences noticed

between the logistic regressions and the t tests mainly referred to variables that only had a significant influence in one sample (Gerês or Sintra), both in t tests and logistic regressions.

Subsequent logistical regressions were carried out, only with respondents who had visited destinations (area visited or the competitors) previously. In these logistical regressions elapsed time since the last visit to the destination was included. However, as this variable did not have a significant influence on the dependent variable (the decision of whether or not to search), only the results of the regressions carried out without the elapsed time since last visit are presented.

There was no consistent pattern of influence of socio-economic variables (age, level of education nor of the economic activity) on the decision to search. As far as behaviour was concerned, the size of the travel group was negatively related to search about the area visited, with people travelling in smaller groups being more likely to search for information than those travelling in bigger groups. Additionally, the respondents who stayed primarily in hotel establishments were also more likely to search for information about the area visited than those who stayed in other kinds of accommodation. Hence, in the total sample, in the case of the area visited, the quotient between the probability of searching and the probability of not searching was 5.125 times higher when respondents used hotel establishments than when respondents used other kinds of accommodations.

Finally, people were more likely to search for information about competitors to the area visited if they had already searched for information for the area visited and if competing destinations were located in the same country as the area visited.

To supplement the information presented above, a comparison was done between the respondents who did not search and those who used different strategies in terms of direction of search – the five clusters of people who used different types of information sources. The objective was to learn if respondents who did not search for information were more familiar, less involved and less constrained in relation to the destination than those belonging to the five clusters (people belonging to the five clusters represented different

profiles of use of information sources). To accomplish this objective, Anovas and Kruskal Wallis tests were carried out (table 10.5.).

In the case of the weakest competitors, Kruskal Wallis tests were used instead of Anovas because the size of the biggest cluster was higher than double the size of the smallest cluster and the variables being analysed did not have homogeneous variances across the different clusters.

In terms of familiarity, the groups of respondents who had high familiarity with the destination considered were usually those who did not search or those who only talked with friends and relatives (cluster 4) (both in the cases of the area visited, strongest competitor or weakest competitor) (table 10.5.).

As far as involvement is concerned, significant differences between clusters were only found in the Anovas referring to the area visited and to the strongest competitors. In the Anovas concerning the area visited, similarities were again found between the respondents who did not collect any information and those who only consulted friends and relatives. Both groups were shown to be most involved with the area visited (table 10.5.).

In the case of constraints, significant differences between clusters were only detected in financial constraints. In the case of the area visited, those who felt less financially constrained were, effectively, those who did not engage in search (table 10.5.). However, in the case of the competitors, this situation was not visible.

Through the Anovas and Kruskal Wallis analyses, it is possible to conclude that those who opted for the "only friends and relatives search" (cluster 4) were very similar to those who did not search, in both familiarity and involvement (in the case of the area visited). This similarity between people who did not search and those who only obtained information through friends and relatives (cluster 4) may help explain the difficulty in obtaining more explanatory power through the logistic regressions carried out previously.

Table 10.5. – Comparative analyses of respondents who used different information sources – Results of Anovas and Kruskal Wallis tests of the total sample (to be continued)

FAMILIARITY	Previous visits			Duration of travel to the area		
	Not search	8.07		Cluster 5	15.73	
Area	Cluster 4	3.80[a]	F	Cluster 3	11.08[a]	F
visited	Cluster 3	2.09[a,b]	30.231	Cluster 2	10.33[a]	15.286
	Cluster 1	1.79[b]		Cluster 1	9.44[a,b]	
Anova	Cluster 2	1.72[b]	Sig.	Not search	6.35[b,c]	Sig.
	Cluster 5	0.36[b]	0.000	Cluster 4	4.27[c]	0.000
	Not search	2.46[a]		Cluster 5	17.52[a]	
Strongest	Cluster 4	1.71[a,b]	F	Cluster 2	13.45[a,b]	F
competitors	Cluster 1	1.15[a,b,c]	6.029	Cluster 3	12.04[a,b]	7.863
	Cluster 2	1.11[a,b,c]		Not search	8.31[b,c]	
Anova	Cluster 3	0.89[b,c]	Sig.	Cluster 1	8.18[b,c]	Sig.
	Cluster 5	0.24[c]	0.000	Cluster 4	6.11[c]	0.000
	Cluster 4	353.8		Cluster 5	389.5	
Weakest	Not search	322.6	F	Cluster 2	337.0	F
competitors	Cluster 1	309.4	13.468	Cluster 3	316.6	21.830
	Cluster 3	307.0		Cluster 1	301.8	
Kruskal	Cluster 2	307.0	Sig.	Not search	292.6	Sig.
Wallis	Cluster 5	267.7	0.019	Cluster 4	261.7	0.001
INVOLVEMENT	**Interest/pleasure**			**Sign**		
	Cluster 4	4.40[a]		Cluster 4	3.57[a]	
Area	Not search	4.36[a,b]	F	Not search	3.43[a,b]	F
visited	Cluster 2	4.33[a,b]	6.398	Cluster 3	3.42[a,b]	5.378
	Cluster 3	4.27[a,b]		Cluster 2	3.35[a,b,c]	
Anova	Cluster 1	4.25[b,c]	Sig.	Cluster 1	3.28[b,c]	Sig.
	Cluster 5	4.12[c]	0.000	Cluster 5	3.16[c]	0.000
	Cluster 4	4.30[a]		Cluster 3	3.42[a]	
Strongest	Cluster 3	4.20[a,b]	F	Not search	3.38[a]	F
competitors	Cluster 1	4.18[a,b]	2.452	Cluster 2	3.23[a]	2.358
	Cluster 2	4.16[a,b]		Cluster 4	3.22[a]	
Anova	Not search	4.11[a,b]	Sig.	Cluster 1	3.18[a]	Sig.
	Cluster 5	3.96[b]	0.032	Cluster 5	3.10[a]	0.039
	Cluster 2	333.7		Not search	329.3	
Weakest	Not search	326.1	F	Cluster 2	319.7	F
competitors	Cluster 3	317.9	7.714	Cluster 3	315.6	4.188
	Cluster 4	312.0		Cluster 4	304.5	
Kruskal	Cluster 1	292.8	Sig.	Cluster 1	291.1	Sig.
Wallis	Cluster 5	264.5	0.173	Cluster 5	288.1	0.523

Key: The values represented in the table, in the case of the Anovas are the means of the groups, whereas in the case of the Kruskal Wallis correponded to the mean ranks. In the Anova, the Post Hoc Test used was the Tukey HSD test, because the size of the clusters was not very different (size of the biggest cluster approximately 2*size of the smallest cluster). In Anova means with the same superscripts are not significantly different.

Cluster 1 - Destination based search; Cluster 2 - Commercial printed material search; Cluster 3 - Media and books search; Cluster 4 - Only friends and relatives search; Cluster 5 - Guides dependent search.

Table 10.5. – Comparative analyses of respondents who had used different information sources – Results of Anovas and Kruskal Wallis tests of the total sample (continued)

CONSTRAINTS	Financial constraints			Time constraints			Accessibility constraints		
	Cluster 1	1.58[a]		Not search	1.53[a]		Cluster 3	1.63[a]	
Area	Cluster 3	1.56[a]	F	Cluster 2	1.52[a]	F	Cluster 1	1.60[a]	F
visited	Cluster 5	1.56[a]	7.848	Cluster 3	1.52[a]	1.055	Cluster 2	1.60[a]	0.546
	Cluster 2	1.54[a,b]		Cluster 1	1.50[a]		Cluster 5	1.57[a]	
Anova	Cluster 4	1.37[b,c]	Sig.	Cluster 5	1.44[a]	Sig.	Cluster 4	1.55[a]	Sig.
	Not search	1.29[c]	0.000	Cluster 4	1.41[a]	0.384	Not search	1.53[a]	0.742
	Cluster 1	2.35[a]		Cluster 5	2.21[a]		Cluster 5	1.91[a]	
Strongest	Cluster 5	2.28[a,b]	F	Cluster 3	2.06[a]	F	Cluster 3	1.74[a,b]	F
competitors	Cluster 3	2.24[a,b]	3.263	Cluster 1	1.99[a]	1.991	Not search	1.73[a,b]	1.795
	Not search	2.07[a,b]		Not search	1.94[a]		Cluster 1	1.71[a,b]	
Anova	Cluster 4	1.97[a,b]	Sig.	Cluster 2	1.83[a]	Sig.	Cluster 2	1.70[a,b]	Sig.
	Cluster 2	1.91[b]	0.006	Cluster 4	1.81[a]	0.078	Cluster 4	1.51[b]	0.111
	Cluster 3	349.6		Cluster 1	337.5		Cluster 1	322.7	
Weakest	Cluster 1	342.0	F	Not search	328.4	F	Cluster 3	320.8	F
competitors	Not search	315.9	13.444	Cluster 5	326.4	8.949	Not search	320.1	3.448
	Cluster 5	298.5		Cluster 3	309.7		Cluster 5	317.2	
Kruskal	Cluster 2	280.1	Sig.	Cluster 4	307.8	Sig.	Cluster 2	307.2	Sig.
Wallis	Cluster 4	280.1	0.020	Cluster 2	270.7	0.111	Cluster 4	281.5	0.631

Key: The values represented in the table, in the case of the Anovas are the means of the groups, whereas in the case of the Kruskal Wallis correponded to the mean ranks. In the Anova, the Post Hoc Test used was the Tukey HSD test, because the size of the clusters was not very different (size of the biggest cluster approximately 2*size of the smallest cluster). In Anova means with the same superscripts are not significantly different.

Cluster 1 - Destination based search; Cluster 2 - Commercial printed material search; Cluster 3 - Media and books search; Cluster 4 - Only friends and relatives search; Cluster 5 - Guides dependent search.

10.2.2. The influence of involvement, familiarity and constraints, on the search effort made by individuals who searched for information about destinations

To test the influence of familiarity, involvement and constraints in the effort made to search for information about destinations, other statistical analyses were done. Correlations and linear regressions were used to test if visitors who searched for information made more effort to search for information about the destination – spend more time searching for information, consulted more information sources and searched for information about more destination attributes – when they were more involved with the destination, less familiar

with it and more constrained from visiting it. To perform this analysis an index that represented the effort made for searching information was calculated. This index incorporated three components of the search effort:

- the time visitors spent searching information;
- the number of information sources consulted; and
- the number of destination attributes for which information was sought.

As the variables corresponding to these three components were not measured by the same scale, it was necessary to standardize the three variables. Since outliers could bias this calculation, the outliers of the three variables[1] were excluded. For each destination, the three standardized variable values were summed (figure 10.3.). This index was calculated for all the destinations for which respondents searched for information. The index was the dependent variable of the linear regressions.

Figure 10.3. – Formula used to calculate the index of search effort

SE = Standardized (TIME) + Standardized (SOURCES) + Standardized (ATTRIBUTES)

Key:
SE - Search effort for obtaining information about the destination
TIME – time spent searching information about the destination (without outliers)
SOURCES – number of information sources consulted in order to obtain information about the destination (without outliers)
ATTRIBUTES - number of destination attributes for which information was sought (without outliers)

The independent variables of the linear regressions comprised all those incorporated in the logistic regressions plus some variables that among those who searched for information could have an influence on the strength of information search[2]. These additional variables

[1] Those having standardized values equal or higher to three.
[2] The binary variable that, in the logistic regressions of competitors, indicated whether respondents had searched or not information about the area visited, in the linear regressions was replaced by a variable that indicated the search effort made in relation to the area visited (designated as "strength of search area visited").

referred to the kind of information sources respondents used and to whether or not they had used the internet. The use of the internet was represented by a binary variable (0 – the respondent had not used the internet, 1 - the respondent had used the internet). The kind of information sources visitors used was represented by several binary variables indicating the information cluster to which the visitor belonged[3]:

- Destination based search – the respondent belonged to this cluster (0 – no, 1 – yes);
- Commercial printed material search – the respondent belonged to this cluster (0 – no, 1 – yes);
- Only friends and relatives search – the respondent belonged to this cluster (0 – no, 1 – yes);
- Guides dependent search – the respondent belonged to this cluster (0 – no, 1 – yes).

When the first linear regressions were performed, normal Q-Q plots of the standardized residuals were done (as suggested by Pestana and Gageiro, 2003) to assess whether the distributions of the error terms were normal. As this assumption was not met, some independent variables were transformed, as suggested by Hair *et al.* (1998). The objective was to transform the original variables so that the transformed variables had a distribution which was more similar to a normal distribution. The following transformations were performed:

- In the case of FC (financial constraints), TC (time constraints), AC (accessibility constraints), AGE and GR (size of the travel group), the transformed variables were the logarithm of the original variable;
- In the case of VI (previous visits), TI (duration of the travel to the destination), DT (duration of the current trip), DS (duration of the stay in the park visited), one unit was added to the original variables and then the logarithm of that value (the value of the variable plus one unit) was calculated[4];

[3] The cluster corresponding to media and books search was used as a reference.
[4] The reason for adding one unit before calculating the logarithm was that the original variables in this group, in the case of some visitors, were equal to zero, and this rendered it impossible to calculate the logarithm in these cases.

- In the case of I (interest pleasure), the transformed variable was equal to the square root of the original variable.

The stepwise method was used for selecting the independent variables. The results of the linear regressions which incorporated the transformed variables for the total sample are presented in table 10.6..

Separate linear regressions were performed on the Gerês and Sintra samples (appendix 5). A summary of the results of the linear regressions on the total sample, the Gerês sample and the Sintra sample is presented in table 10.7..

In all the regressions, the error terms were independent, since the Durbin-Watson test always presented values not very different from 2 (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003). Multicollinearity among the independent variables was tested and was not a problem because all the VIFs were lower than 10 and the tolerance was always » 0,1 (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003).

Several plots showed that the phenomenon measured was approximately linear, and that error terms approximately followed a normal distribution and had homogeneous variance (figure 10.4.).

Table 10.6. – Variables that significantly influenced the strength of search among those who searched – Results of linear regressions of the area visited, strongest competitors and weakest competitors for the total sample (Gerês and Sintra) (to be continued)

		Independent variables	Unst.Coeffic.		St.Coef.	t	Sig.	Collin.Stat.		Other
			B	S.E.	Beta			Toler.	VIF	indicators
Linear regression model of the Area visited N=1,358	**Familiarity**	**previous visits** (transf.)	-0.380	0.129	-0.071	-2.940	0.003	0.890	1.1	Adjusted R^2=0.30 Durbin--Watson =1.43
	Constraints	**accessibility constraints** (transf.)	-0.586	0.248	-0.054	-2.365	0.018	0.978	1.0	
	Socio--economic data	**economic activity**								
		otherwise	X							
		employed	-0.363	0.104	-0.081	-3.477	0.001	0.961	1.0	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**children**								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.312	0.116	-0.063	-2.696	0.007	0.959	1.0	
		duration stay area visited (transf.)	0.795	0.138	0.142	5.778	0.000	0.852	1.2	
		alternate destinations	0.250	0.025	0.237	10.113	0.000	0.941	1.1	
	Information search	**use internet**								
		no	X							
		yes	0.577	0.104	0.142	5.553	0.000	0.794	1.3	
		destination based search								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.967	0.150	-0.221	-6.469	0.000	0.444	2.3	
		commercial printed material search								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.694	0.147	-0.155	-4.738	0.000	0.485	2.1	
		only friends and relatives search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.250	0.169	-0.412	-13.344	0.000	0.541	1.8	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.134	0.169	-0.380	-12.620	0.000	0.569	1.8	
	Constant		0.677	0.169		4.000	0.000			
Linear regression model of the Strongest competitors N=555	**Constraints**	**time constraints** (transf.)	0.766	0.289	0.083	2.653	0.008	0.828	1.2	Adjusted R^2=0.55 Durbin--Watson =1.67
		accessibility constraints (transf.)	-0.999	0.324	-0.096	-3.086	0.002	0.841	1.2	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration stay area visited** (transf.)	0.703	0.176	0.120	3.986	0.000	0.902	1.1	
		hotel establishments								
		other kind of accommodation	X							
		hotel establishments	0.364	0.123	0.087	2.947	0.003	0.928	1.1	
		alternate destinations	0.105	0.035	0.088	2.999	0.003	0.943	1.1	
	Features referring to the area visited	**same country area visited**								
		no	X							
		yes	0.357	0.127	0.083	2.822	0.005	0.947	1.1	
		strength search area visited	0.523	0.028	0.562	18.938	0.000	0.926	1.1	
	Information search	**destination based search**								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.907	0.180	-0.169	-5.044	0.000	0.722	1.4	
		commercial printed material search								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.697	0.169	-0.142	-4.127	0.000	0.683	1.5	
		only friends and relatives search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.943	0.199	-0.326	-9.784	0.000	0.733	1.4	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.478	0.193	-0.259	-7.650	0.000	0.709	1.4	
	Constant		-0.806	0.210		-3.830	0.000			

Legend: X - reference category.

Table 10.6. – Variables that significantly influenced the strength of search among those who searched – Results of linear regressions of the area visited, strongest competitors and weakest competitors for the total sample (Gerês and Sintra) (continued)

		Independent variables	Unst.Coeffic.		St.Coef.	t	Sig.	Collin.Stat.		Other
			B	S.E.	Beta			Toler.	VIF	indicators
Linear regression model of the Weakest competitors N=402	**Involvement**	**interest/pleasure** (transf.)	1.582	0.319	0.195	4.952	0.000	0.927	1.1	
	Constraints	**financial constraints** (transf.)	1.033	0.317	0.127	3.262	0.001	0.944	1.1	
	Socio--economic data	**age** (transf.)	2.086	0.625	0.136	3.338	0.001	0.868	1.2	
	Features referring to the area visited	**strength search area visited**	0.334	0.038	0.361	8.780	0.000	0.848	1.2	Adjusted R^2=0.43
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration current travel** (transf.)	-0.506	0.226	-0.087	-2.233	0.026	0.937	1.1	Durbin-
		duration stay area visited (transf.)	0.732	0.212	0.134	3.453	0.001	0.947	1.1	-Watson =1.45
	Information search	**only friends and relatives search**								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.692	0.209	-0.336	-8.109	0.000	0.837	1.2	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.053	0.223	-0.192	-4.717	0.000	0.869	1.2	
	Constant		-6.753	1.223		-5.521	0.000			

Legend: X - reference category.

Figure 10.4. – Example of plots used for testing the normal distribution and the homocedasticity of the error terms

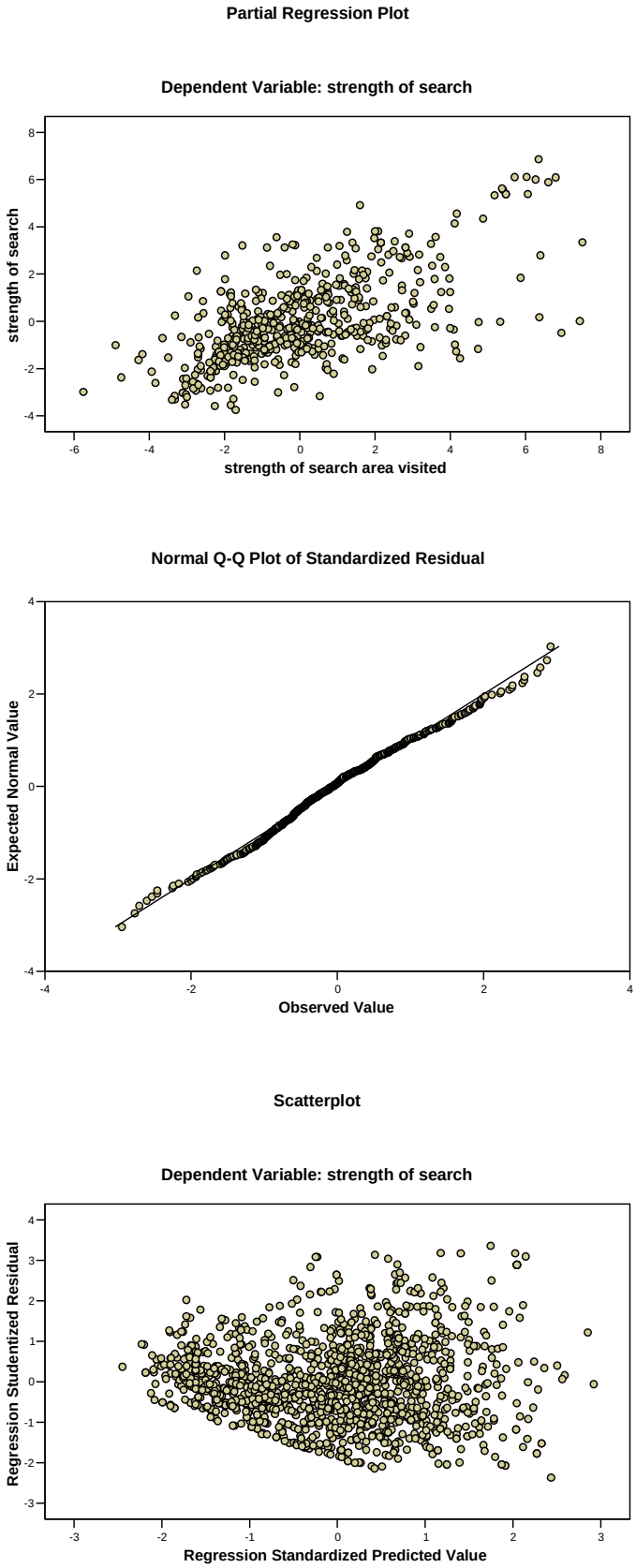


Table 10.7. – Variables that significantly influenced the strength of search among those who searched – Summary of the results of linear regressions

	Independent variables (predictors)	Model of the area visited			Model of the strongest competitor			Model of the weakest competitor		
		Global sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Global sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Global sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample
Familiarity	previous visits	-	-							
	duration of travel to the area									
Involvement	interest/pleasure							+	+	+
	sign									
Constraints	financial constraints							+		+
	time constraints				+		+			
	accessibility constraints	-	-		-		-			
Socio--economic data	age							+	+	
	highest grade in school									
	economic activity	-	-							
Behavior before and during the trip	travel group size									-
	children	-								
	duration of the current trip							-		
	duration of stay in the area visited	+	+	+	+	+		+		
	hotel establishments				+	+				
	other collective accommodation			-						-
	number of alternate destinations	+	+	+	+	+	+			
Features referring to the area visited	same country of the area visited	(*)	(*)	(*)	+		+	-		
	strength search area visited	(*)	(*)	(*)	+	+	+	+	+	+
Search behavior	used internet	+	+	+						
	destination based search	-	-		-	-	-			
	commercial printed material search	-	-		-	-	-		-	
	only friends and relatives search	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	guides dependent search	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Key: **-** independent variables with a negative significant infuence on the strength of search (search effort).
+ independent variables with a positive significant infuence on the strength of search (search effort).
(*) not included in the linear regressions concerning the area visited.

Correlations were undertaken between the variable representing the strength of search and those representing familiarity, involvement and constraints. The correlations were carried out for the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor, and were calculated separately for the total sample (table 10.8.), the Gerês sample and the Sintra sample (appendix 6). A summary of the results of the correlations for all samples is presented in table 10.9..

Table 10.8. – Correlations between strength of search and factors that influence search - familiarity, involvement and constraints (total sample)

			Strength of search about the destination		
			Area visited	**Strongest competitor**	**Weakest competitor**
Familiarity	previous visits	Correl.	-0.075	0.057	-0.017
		Sig.	0.005	0.169	0.731
		N	1,392	583	422
	duration of the travel to the area	Correl.	0.050	-0.012	-0.034
		Sig.	0.063	0.765	0.487
		N	1,387	581	420
	elapsed time since the last visit	Correl.	0.012	-0.067	0.116
		Sig.	0.793	0.403	0.221
		N	494	157	113
Involvement	interest/ pleasure	Correl.	-0.006	0.089	0.194
		Sig.	0.821	0.032	0.000
		N	1,393	583	422
	sign	Correl.	-0.034	0.122	0.115
		Sig.	0.206	0.003	0.019
		N	1,390	582	421
Constraints	financial	Correl.	0.056	0.055	0.124
		Sig.	0.035	0.184	0.011
		N	1,393	583	422
	time	Correl.	0.008	-0.008	-0.069
		Sig.	0.766	0.842	0.156
		N	1,392	582	422
	accessibility	Correl.	-0.031	-0.109	0.024
		Sig.	0.243	0.008	0.628
		N	1,392	583	422

Key: The variables concerning familiarity, involvement and constraints correspond to the independent variable included in the linear regressions.

significance « 0.05

Table 10.9. – Relationship between strength of search and factors that influence search - familiarity, involvement and constraints – Summary of the results of the correlations

	Independent variables (predictors)	**Correlations**								
		Area visited			**Strongest competitor**			**Weakest competitor**		
		Tobal sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Tobal sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample	Tobal sample	Gerês sample	Sintra sample
Familiarity	previous visits	-		-					-	
	duration of travel to the area								+	
	elapsed time since the last visit									
Involvement	interest/pleasure				+			+	+	+
	sign		-		+		+	+		
Constraints	financial constraints	+				+		+	+	+
	time constraints									
	accessibility constraints				-					

Key: **-** independent variables with a negative significant relationship with the strength of search (search effort).
+ independent variables with a positive significant relationship with the strength of search (search effort).

The results of the correlations and linear regressions showed that among those who search, familiarity seems to have only an occasional influence on strength of search. In the three kind of areas considered, all the indicators of familiarity only had a significant impact in one sample. However, all the correlations showed a negative relationship between familiarity and search, as hypothesized (table 10.9.).

The interest/pleasure dimension of involvement, as postulated, was positively correlated with strength of search for information in all samples, in the case of the weakest competitor (table 10.9.). No other consistent significant correlations between involvement and search were detected.

Financial constraints had a positive significant correlation with strength of search in the case of the weakest competitor, in all samples (table 10.9.). No consistent patterns of the correlations between other constraints (time and accessibility) and search were found.

The linear regressions (tables 10.6. and 10.7. and appendix 5) presented similar findings to those of the correlations as far as familiarity, involvement and constraints are concerned. The main disparity between correlations and regressions was that several variables that were significantly correlated with search were not included in the linear regressions (e.g. sign was significantly correlated with search in some samples but was excluded from all the regressions). However, this mainly happened with variables that were related to search in one sample but not on others, that is, for which consistent findings were not found in all samples. The consistent positive relationship between search and interest/pleasure found in correlations concerning the weakest competitor, was also visible in the regressions concerning that competitor.

In terms of other variables, the linear regressions revealed that whereas socio-economic data had no consistent significant influence on strength of search for the area visited, the opposite happens with some features of behaviour of respondents, including search behaviour. Use of the internet, duration of stay in the area visited and number of alternate destinations were likely to have a positive influence on strength of search for the area

visited. People were likely to invest more effort in the search for information about the area visited when they used the internet to obtain information about it, when they spent more time at that area, and when they considered more alternate destinations. The number of alternate destinations also positively influenced strength of search for the strongest competitors.

The strength of search in relation to the area visited also had positive influence on strength of search about competitors. Hence, those who were likely to make more effort looking for information about the destination they visited, also tended to invest more effort in searching for information about alternate destinations. Respondents who used media and books to obtain information about destinations (those belonging to cluster 3) (see table 10.6.) invested more search effort to obtain information than respondents who used other information sources (those who belonged to other clusters).

Several conclusions can be drawn about the influence of involvement, familiarity and constraints on the effort made to obtain information about destinations, both concerning the decision of whether or not to search for information, and the search effort made by those who decided to search. Constraints to travel that had most impact on search were financial constraints. There was not a consistent pattern of relationship between search and the other two kind of constraints - time and accessibility constraints. Financial constraints had a major influence on the decision of whether or not to search, especially in the case of the area visited. In this case, they acted as motivators of search, with those reporting strongest constraints in relation to the area visited being more likely to search for information about this area. Since, in both samples, in the case of the area visited, respondents who had most financial constraints were more likely to decide to search for information about that area, but no consistent findings were reported in other kinds of constraints:

- Then **Hypothesis 1** → Is **moderately supported**.

In the case of the areas chosen to be visited, the **strength of information search** for a destination is likely to be **positively related to** the level of **constraints** people perceive **to travelling to that destination**. Specifically, the strength of information search is likely to be:

(a) positively related to perceived **financial constraints to travelling to that destination**;
(b) positively related to perceived **time constraints to travelling to that destination**;
(c) positively related to perceived **accessibility constraints to travelling to that destination**.

In contrast to familiarity and constraints, level of involvement had a dominant influence on the strength of search among those who decided to search, and especially in the case of the weakest competitors. Hence, respondents who had already decided to search for information about the weakest competing destination were likely to invest more effort in searching for information about this destination when they believed visiting this destination was important and could give them pleasure. Since respondents who had decided to search for information about the weakest competitor in both samples spent more effort searching for information about the weakest competitor when they believed that visiting that destination was more important/could give them more pleasure, but this only happened in the case of the weakest competitor:

- **Hypothesis 2 →** Is **weakly supported.**

In any consideration set, the **strength of information search** for a destination being considered for a visit, is likely to be **positively related to** the importance and pleasure dimensions of **involvement with that destination**.

Familiarity had a negative influence on information search, especially on the decision of whether or not to search, with the number of previous visits made to the destinations being the indicator of familiarity with major impact on information search. The less familiar people were with destinations, the more likely they were to search for information about

them. This impact was more obvious in the cases of the area visited and strongest competitors. Thus, in relation to hypothesis 3:

- the previous visits consistently contributed to the option of not searching for information about the area visited and the strongest competitor in both samples;
- among those who decided to search for information about the area visited, the number of previous visits to that area also led, in the case of the Sintra visitors, to lower effort in searching for information about that area;
- no consistent results were obtained in the several samples concerning the search and the other two indicators of familiarity - duration of travel to the destination and elapsed time since the last visit to the destination;
- every time a significant relationship between duration of travel to the destination and strength of search was detected, those living further away from destinations were more likely to search about the destination than those living nearer;
- a majority of the significant relationships found between search and the elapsed time since the last visit to the destination were positive. Thus:

- **Hypothesis 3** → Is **moderately supported.**

  In any consideration set, the **strength of information search** for a destination being considered for a visit, is likely to be **negatively related to** level of **familiarity with those destinations**. Specifically, the strength of information search is likely to be:

  (a) inversely related to the **number of previous visits** made to that destination;
  (b) positively related to the **duration of travel to that destination**;
  (c) positively related to the **elapsed time since the last visit to that destination**.

Going beyond the scope of the hypotheses being tested, the analyses also revealed findings that may be possible guides for future research.

One was that the amount of effort of people who decide to search for information about destinations, is likely to be related to the information sources they use and to whether or not they use the internet. Respondents who adopted the "media and books search" were

those spending most effort in looking for information. This may be attributable to people spending more time reading a book or watching a television program about a specific destination than, for example, contacting people from hotel establishments to obtain information about an area. One feature that highlights the importance of the internet in the diffusion of tourism information is that respondents spent more effort searching for information about the area they visited when they searched for information through the internet than when they did not use the internet.

Another finding was that strength of search about the strongest and weakest competitors tended to be related to the search effort carried out to obtain information about the area visited. Hence, when respondents searched for information about the area visited they were more likely also to search for information about competing destinations. Additionally, when visitors invested more effort searching for information about the area visited (in terms of time, sources consulted and attributes about which information was sought), they were likely to invest more effort in searching for information about competing destinations.

Besides the strength of search, the direction of search – that is, the type of information sources respondents decided to consult – about competitors was related to the direction of search adopted in relation to the area visited. Tables 10.10. and 10.11. report the search strategies that respondents considering more than one alternate destinations adopted to obtain information about the area visited and the competitors. In the Gerês sample, when people did not search for information about the area visited (this happened in the case of 23 respondents), they were more likely not to search for information about competing destinations (this happened in 83% of the cases in which visitors to Gerês did not collect information about Gerês) (table 10.10). Similarly, when visitors searched for information about the area visited, they were more likely either not to search information about competing destinations or to search for information about these destinations adopting the same search strategy. For example, a considerable number of Gerês visitors (74 persons) who adopted the destination based strategy (consulting sources located at the destination) for obtaining information about Gerês, did not search for information about competitors to Gerês (16%) or collected information using the same search strategy (27%). A similar

pattern is found in the Sintra and Gerês samples in a majority of the information sources. These results also provide insights for future areas of study.

Table 10.10. – Search strategies to obtain information about the area visited and its competitors, followed by Gerês visitors who considered two or more alternate destinations

Search strategy adopted to obtain information about				
The area visited	The strongest competitor	The weakest competitor	N	%
N	N	N	19	82.61
N	D	N	1	4.35
N	C	F	1	4.35
N	B	B	1	4.35
N	F	F	1	4.35
		Total	23	100.00
D	N	N	12	16.22
D	N	D	1	1.35
D	N	B	1	1.35
D	N	F	2	2.70
D	D	N	4	5.41
D	D	D	20	27.03
D	D	C	3	4.05
D	D	B	4	5.41
D	D	F	2	2.70
D	C	N	1	1.35
D	C	D	1	1.35
D	C	C	3	4.05
D	B	D	2	2.70
D	B	C	2	2.70
D	B	B	3	4.05
D	F	N	4	5.41
D	F	D	1	1.35
D	F	B	2	2.70
D	F	F	5	6.76
D	F	G	1	1.35
		Total	74	100.00
C	N	N	14	15.91
C	D	N	4	4.55
C	D	D	1	1.14
C	D	C	2	2.27
C	D	B	1	1.14
C	D	G	1	1.14
C	C	N	4	4.55
C	C	D	2	2.27
C	C	C	29	32.95
C	C	B	4	4.55
C	C	F	3	3.41
C	B	C	1	1.14
C	B	B	10	11.36
C	B	F	1	1.14
C	F	C	1	1.14
C	F	B	3	3.41
C	F	F	4	4.55
C	G	D	1	1.14
C	G	G	2	2.27
		Total	88	100.00

Search strategy adopted to obtain information about				
The area visited	The strongest competitor	The weakest competitor	N	%
B	N	N	5	9.62
B	D	D	1	1.92
B	D	B	2	3.85
B	C	D	1	1.92
B	C	C	3	5.77
B	C	B	2	3.85
B	B	N	5	9.62
B	B	D	2	3.85
B	B	C	1	1.92
B	B	B	23	44.23
B	B	F	2	3.85
B	F	F	3	5.77
B	G	G	2	3.85
		Total	52	100.00
F	N	N	13	21.67
F	N	F	4	6.67
F	D	D	2	3.33
F	D	G	1	1.67
F	C	C	5	8.33
F	C	B	1	1.67
F	B	D	1	1.67
F	B	B	8	13.33
F	B	F	3	5.00
F	F	N	1	1.67
F	F	D	2	3.33
F	F	B	3	5.00
F	F	F	14	23.33
F	G	B	1	1.67
F	G	G	1	1.67
		Total	60	100.00
G	N	N	3	25.00
G	C	D	1	8.33
G	C	C	3	25.00
G	G	G	5	41.67
		Total	12	100.00
	Total		309	

Key: N (did not search); D (destination based search); C (commercial printed material); B (media and books search); F (only friends and relatives search); G (guides dependent search)

Table 10.11. – Search strategies to obtain information about the area visited and its competitors, followed by Sintra visitors who considered two or more alternate destinations

Search strategy adopted to obtain information about				
The area visited	The strongest competitor	The weakest competitor	N	%
N	N	N	7	70.00
N	D	D	1	10.00
N	B	N	1	10.00
N	B	G	1	10.00
		Total	10	100.00
D	N	N	11	12.36
D	N	D	2	2.25
D	N	C	1	1.12
D	D	N	5	5.62
D	D	D	17	19.10
D	D	C	3	3.37
D	D	B	1	1.12
D	D	F	2	2.25
D	C	N	3	3.37
D	C	D	1	1.12
D	C	C	4	4.49
D	C	G	4	4.49
D	B	N	1	1.12
D	B	C	4	4.49
D	B	B	2	2.25
D	B	F	4	4.49
D	B	G	1	1.12
D	F	N	4	4.49
D	F	D	1	1.12
D	F	B	1	12.36
D	F	F	3	3.37
D	F	G	2	2.25
D	G	D	2	2.25
D	G	C	3	3.37
D	G	F	2	2.25
D	G	G	5	5.62
		Total	89	100.00
C	N	N	23	28.05
C	N	B	1	1.22
C	D	N	1	1.22
C	D	D	2	2.44
C	C	D	5	6.10
C	C	C	19	23.17
C	C	B	2	2.44
C	C	F	1	1.22
C	C	G	2	2.44
C	B	B	9	10.98
C	B	F	5	6.10
C	F	N	2	2.44
C	F	F	2	2.44
C	F	G	1	1.22
C	G	N	3	3.66
C	G	G	4	4.88
		Total	82	100.00

Search strategy adopted to obtain information about				
The area visited	The strongest competitor	The weakest competitor	N	%
B	N	N	10	17.24
B	D	N	2	3.45
B	C	C	2	3.45
B	C	B	2	3.45
B	B	N	1	1.72
B	B	D	2	3.45
B	B	C	2	3.45
B	B	B	21	36.21
B	B	F	2	3.45
B	F	N	2	3.45
B	F	B	2	3.45
B	F	F	2	3.45
B	G	C	1	1.72
B	G	B	2	3.45
B	G	F	1	1.72
B	G	G	4	6.90
		Total	58	100.00
F	N	N	6	60.00
F	C	C	2	20.00
F	B	N	1	10.00
F	F	F	1	10.00
		Total	10	100.00
G	N	N	11	15.94
G	N	C	1	1.45
G	D	N	4	5.80
G	D	D	2	2.90
G	D	F	1	1.45
G	C	C	1	1.45
G	C	B	2	2.90
G	B	C	2	2.90
G	B	B	9	13.04
G	B	G	5	7.25
G	F	F	3	4.35
G	G	N	4	5.80
G	G	B	2	2.90
G	G	F	3	4.35
G	G	G	19	27.54
		Total	69	100.00
	Total		318	

Key: N (did not search); D (destination based search); C (commercial printed material); B (media and books search); F (only friends and relatives search); G (guides dependent search)

Behaviour before and during travel is likely to be related to strength of search, mainly that carried out to obtain information about the area visited. Those who stayed in hotel establishments and travelled in smaller groups were more likely to search for information about the area visited. Those who stayed a longer time at the park visited and thought about more alternate destinations, spent more effort searching for information about the area visited. The number of alternate destinations was also significantly related to the search effort done for the strongest competitor, which may mean that when people consider visiting more destinations they invest more effort looking for information about the area visited and the strongest competitor, probably because they have to discard more destinations and they want to be sure that the area they select to be visited is the best choice.

10.3. DETERMINANTS OF THE IMAGE OF DESTINATIONS CONCERNING ATTRACTIONS

One of the aims of this thesis is to analyse whether the strength of search done to acquire information about the destinations in terms of attractions is likely to influence the formation of destination image in terms of attractions. The following hypothesis tested this:

Hypothesis 4. During the elaboration of consideration sets, the **image of a destination** being considered for a visit (in terms of attractions) is likely to be **positively related to** the **strength of information search** for the attractions of that destination.

To test this hypothesis, correlations between the dimensions of the image of the destinations and the variables representing the strength of information search, were calculated. As the objective was to test the existence of a relationship between information search and image, only the destinations for which the individuals searched for information were considered in the correlations. Specifically, the variables correlated were:

- variables representing the **strength of information search**:
  - **time spent searching** information about the destination;

- number of **information sources consulted** to have information about the destination;
- instead of considering the number of attributes about which information was sought, it was decided to consider other variables that gave specific information about the strength of information search about specific dimensions of the destination image. Attributes considered in each dimension are shown in figure 10.5.. Four dimensions were operationalized:
  - **strength of search in terms of nature**;
  - **strength of search in terms of culture**;
  - **strength of search in terms of beach and climate**;
  - **strength of search in terms of facilities**.

  The strength of search for each dimension corresponded to the number of attributes of each dimension for which information was searched.

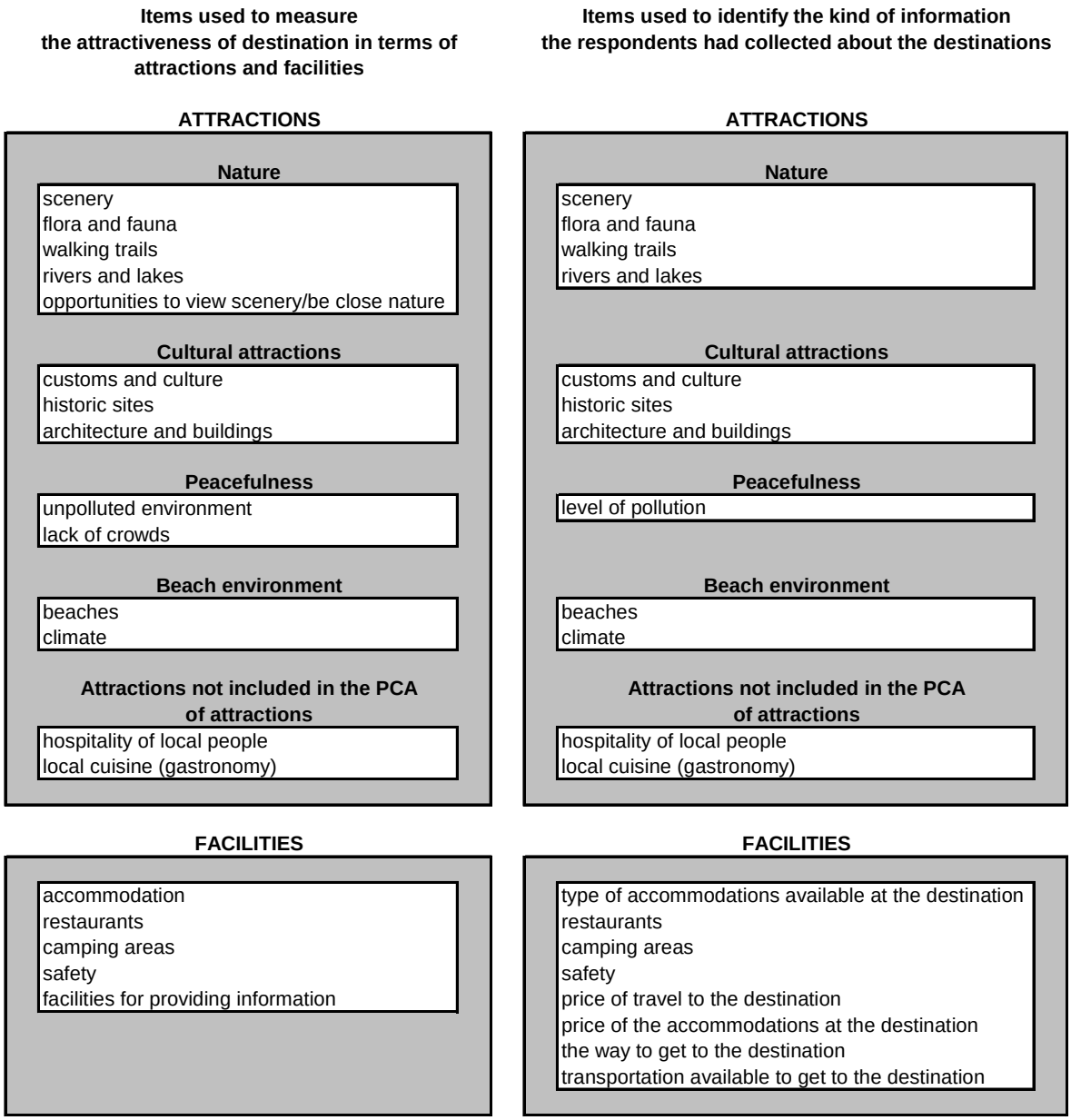
- the **dimensions of the destinations' image** were:
  - **image of the destination in terms of nature**;
  - **image of the destination in terms of culture**;
  - **image of the destination in terms of peacefulness**;
  - **image of the destination in terms of beach and climate**.
- variables representing the **familiarity**[5]:
  - number of **previous visits**;
  - **duration of travel** to the destination.

Correlations between all these variables were calculated. Since the image of Gerês differs considerably from the image of Sintra, and the image of competitors to Gerês may also considerably differ from the image of competitors to Sintra, correlations were calculated separately for Gerês and for Sintra. In both the Gerês and Sintra samples, the cases included in correlations corresponded to all the destinations for which respondents searched for information, including areas visited, strongest competitors and weakest

[5] Although the aim of hypothesis 4 was to test the influence of information search on image, as the literature review suggested that familiarity could have a positive or negative impact on destination's image, familiarity variables were also correlated to image dimensions in order to identify the kind of impact familiarity had on image in the context of this thesis.

competitors. Results of the correlations for the two samples are presented in tables 10.12. and 10.13..

Figure 10.5. – Relationship between the several dimensions of destination image and the destinations' attributes for which respondents could obtain information about that dimension



In terms of strength of search, the time spent searching information about destinations was not correlated with any dimension of image in any of the samples. The number of information sources consulted showed a very weak correlation with specific dimensions of image in only one sample – the Gerês sample. In that sample, those who consulted more

information sources had a more negative image of Gerês and its competitors in terms of "beach and climate" and "peacefulness".

Table 10.12. – Correlation matrix of the familiarity, strength of search and dimensions of image – Gerês sample

			Familiarity	**Strength of information search**						**Image of the destination**			
			duration of the travel to the area	time spent searching information	number of sources consulted	strength of search about nature	strength of search about culture	strength of search about beach and climate	strength of search about facilities	in terms of nature	in terms of culture	in terms of peacefulness	in terms of beach and climate
Familiarity	previous visits	Correl.	-0.159	-0.042	-0.078	0.025	0.012	-0.042	-0.027	0.038	-0.032	0.031	0.031
		Sig.	0.000	0.116	0.003	0.352	0.648	0.115	0.314	0.161	0.233	0.242	0.246
		N	1,398	1,403	1,403	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,400	1,401	1,401	1,400	1,400
	duration of the travel to the area	Correl.	1.000	0.083	0.059	-0.014	0.117	-0.013	-0.140	-0.065	0.029	-0.065	-0.040
		Sig.		0.002	0.028	0.595	0.000	0.631	0.000	0.015	0.272	0.015	0.135
		N	1,399	1,399	1,399	1,398	1,398	1,398	1,398	1,397	1,397	1,396	1,396
Strength of information search	time spent searching information	Correl.		1.000	0.141	0.047	0.060	0.064	-0.002	0.020	-0.021	-0.015	-0.005
		Sig.			0.000	0.081	0.024	0.017	0.938	0.466	0.439	0.570	0.858
		N		1,404	1,404	1,401	1,401	1,401	1,401	1,402	1,402	1,401	1,401
	number of sources consulted	Correl.			1.000	0.183	0.283	0.170	0.292	0.007	0.046	-0.059	-0.077
		Sig.				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.781	0.085	0.026	0.004
		N			1,404	1,401	1,401	1,401	1,401	1,402	1,402	1,401	1,401
	strength of search about nature	Correl.				1.000	0.130	0.060	0.195	0.382	0.005	0.180	-0.035
		Sig.					0.000	0.025	0.000	0.000	0.847	0.000	0.187
		N				1,401	1,401	1,401	1,401	1,399	1,399	1,398	1,398
	strength of search about culture	Correl.					1.000	0.046	0.141	-0.062	0.313	-0.101	-0.109
		Sig.						0.085	0.000	0.020	0.000	0.000	0.000
		N					1,401	1,401	1,401	1,399	1,399	1,398	1,398
	strength of search about beach and climate	Correl.						1.000	0.219	-0.195	-0.167	-0.109	0.389
		Sig.							0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
		N						1,401	1,401	1,399	1,399	1,398	1,398
	strength of search about facilities	Correl.							1.000	-0.030	-0.056	-0.008	0.018
		Sig.								0.264	0.038	0.757	0.492
		N							1,401	1,399	1,399	1,399	1,398
Image of the destination	in terms of nature	Correl.								1.000	0.269	0.504	0.056
		Sig.									0.000	0.000	0.035
		N								1,402	1,402	1,401	1,401
	in terms of culture	Correl.									1.000	0.149	0.056
		Sig.										0.000	0.035
		N									1,402	1,401	1,401
	in terms of peacefulness	Correl.										1.000	0.134
		Sig.											0.000
		N										1,401	1,400

Key: significance « 0.05

Table 10.13. – Correlation matrix of the familiarity, strength of search and dimensions of image – Sintra sample

			Familiarity	**Strength of information search**						**Image of the destination**			
			duration of the travel to the area	time spent searching information	number of sources consulted	strength of search about nature	strength of search about culture	strength of search about beach and climate	strength of search about facilities	in terms of nature	in terms of culture	in terms of peacefulness	in terms of beach and climate
Familiarity	previous visits	Correl.	-0.048	-0.003	-0.055	-0.035	-0.004	0.002	-0.004	-0.011	-0.017	0.019	-0.018
		Sig.	0.120	0.922	0.073	0.255	0.905	0.960	0.903	0.728	0.584	0.527	0.565
		N	1,062	1,069	1,069	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,061	1,060	1,060	1,060
	duration of the travel to the area	Correl.	1.000	0.082	-0.012	-0.016	-0.058	-0.051	0.020	-0.128	-0.140	-0.160	-0.096
		Sig.		0.008	0.698	0.597	0.058	0.094	0.521	0.000	0.000	0.051	0.002
		N	1,062	1,062	1,062	1,060	1,060	1,060	1,060	1,054	1,053	1,053	1,053
Strength of information search	time spent searching information	Correl.		1.000	0.442	0.066	0.067	0.058	0.120	0.057	-0.010	-0.004	0.002
		Sig.			0.000	0.030	0.029	0.057	0.000	0.062	0.735	0.895	0.936
		N		1,069	1,069	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,061	1,060	1,060	1,060
	number of sources consulted	Correl.			1.000	0.085	0.238	0.090	0.284	0.043	0.059	-0.048	-0.019
		Sig.				0.006	0.000	0.003	0.000	0.158	0.055	0.115	0.529
		N			1,069	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,061	1,060	1,060	1,060
	strength of search about nature	Correl.				1.000	0.207	0.093	0.064	0.333	0.065	0.150	-0.019
		Sig.					0.000	0.002	0.036	0.000	0.035	0.000	0.539
		N				1,067	1,067	1,067	1,067	1,059	1,058	1,058	1,058
	strength of search about culture	Correl.					1.000	0.016	0.156	0.097	0.384	0.034	-0.119
		Sig.						0.601	0.000	0.002	0.000	0.272	0.000
		N					1,067	1,067	1,067	1,059	1,058	1,058	1,058
	strength of search about beach and climate	Correl.						1.000	0.225	0.048	-0.072	0.132	0.316
		Sig.							0,000	0.116	0.020	0.000	0.000
		N						1,067	1,067	1,059	1,058	1,058	1,058
	strength of search about facilities	Correl.							1.000	0.005	-0.016	0.030	0.070
		Sig.								0.880	0.612	0.327	0.022
		N							1,067	1,059	1,058	1,058	1,058
Image of the destination	in terms of nature	Correl.								1.000	0.271	0.428	0.196
		Sig.									0.000	0.000	0.000
		N								1,061	1,060	1,060	1,060
	in terms of culture	Correl.									1.000	0.144	-0.097
		Sig.										0.000	0.002
		N									1,060	1,059	1,059
	in terms of peacefulness	Correl.										1.000	0.294
		Sig.											0.000
		N										1,060	1,059

Key: significance « 0.05

The strength of search done to obtain information about specific dimensions of the destinations' images was significantly correlated with several dimensions of image. Especially high positive correlations were found between the strength of information search about a specific image dimension and the image of the destination in terms of that dimension. For example, in the Gerês sample, the strength of search carried out to obtain

information about Gerês and its competitors regarding nature, was significantly and positively correlated with the image of those destinations in terms of nature. This means that those who searched for information about more attributes of the destination related to nature, tended to have more favourable images of those destinations in terms of nature. Both in the Gerês and Sintra samples, similar correlations to that described above were found in all three dimensions of image related to tourism attractions for which an indicator of strength of search was included in the correlations – nature, culture, and "beach and climate"[6]. In both samples, these correlations reached values between 0.31 and 0.39.

In both samples, the strength of search for obtaining information about a specific dimension of image was also significantly correlated with dimensions of image other than that about which people searched for information. However, these correlations were always weaker than those found between the strength of search undertaken to obtain information about a specific dimension of image and the image respondents have about that precise dimension. For example, in the Gerês sample, the strength of search to obtain information about nature was positively correlated to image of the destinations in terms of peacefulness. However, this correlation was lower than the correlation found between the strength of search about nature and image of the destinations in terms of nature.

Although the following issue is not within the scope of this thesis, the correlations revealed that the image people had of destinations concerning some image dimensions was correlated with the image people held of the destinations concerning other image dimensions. For example, in both samples the destinations that were evaluated most favourably in terms of nature tended also to be perceived more favourably in terms of other image dimensions, especially in terms of peacefulness. In general, perceptions about each image dimension were positively correlated to perceptions about other image dimensions. These results suggest that there was some tendency for people evaluating destinations most favourably in terms of one image dimension to also evaluate that destination more favourably in terms of other image dimensions. However, many of these correlations are

[6] Although the image dimension of peacefulness was incorporated in the correlations, as the strength for searching information about peacefulness was a binary variable (with two categories corresponding to whether individuals searched for information about the level of pollution of the destination or not) that variable was excluded from the correlations.

weak. The only dimensions that were negatively correlated were "beach and climate" and culture, in the Sintra sample.

As far as familiarity is concerned, in both samples the duration of travel was negatively correlated with several dimensions of image – "nature" and "peacefulness" in the Gerês sample and all image dimension in the Sintra sample. These results suggest that those who lived nearest to the destinations considered to be visited tended to evaluate these destinations more positively, corroborating the findings of the studies carried out by Woodside and Dubelaar (2002) and Bonn *et al.* (2005) (see chapter 4). However, no significant relationships were found between the image dimensions and the other two indicators of familiarity - number of previous visits and elapsed time since the last visit.

To test whether strength of search invested was likely to affect image of the destinations, linear regression analyses were carried out. The dependent variables of the regression analyses were image dimensions of the destinations. The independent variables were the strength of information and familiarity. The purpose of the linear regressions was:

- to test whether strength of search influenced the image of destinations;
- to determine the power of the dimensions of strength of search and familiarity in explaining variance of the image of the destinations.

If linear regressions were carried out for all the image dimensions, many regressions would have to be calculated to represent all the image dimensions. Consequently, they were undertaken only for 3 image dimensions of attractions – nature, culture and "beach and climate" dimensions. Separate regressions were carried out for the Gerês and Sintra samples, resulting in a total of six linear regressions (tables 10.14. and 10.15.).

Again, the stepwise method was used for selecting the independent variables. In this case it was not necessary to transform the variables, given that the error terms followed a normal distribution. The regressions were also considered acceptable because there was no multicollinearity among independent variables; the phenomena measured were approximately linear; and the error terms had a homogeneous variance and were shown to be independent.

Table 10.14. – Variables that significantly influenced the image of the destinations concerning attractions – Results of linear regressions for the Gerês sample

	Independent variables		Unst.Coeffic.		St.Coef.	t	Sig.	Collin.Stat.		Other indicators
			B	S.E.	Beta			Toler.	VIF	
Linear regression model of the image of the destination in terms of nature N=1,380	**Familiarity**	duration of travel to the area	-0.004	0.002	-0.054	-2.213	0.027	0.961	1.0	Adjusted R^2=0.23 Durbin--Watson =1.50
	Information search	strength of search about nature	0.268	0.015	0.429	17.612	0.000	0.951	1.1	
		strength of search about culture	-0.073	0.020	-0.090	-3.695	0.000	0.949	1.1	
		strength of search about beach and climate	-0.250	0.028	-0.220	-9.060	0.000	0.951	1.1	
		strength of search about facilities	-0.036	0.012	-0.076	-3.007	0.003	0.884	1.1	
	Constant		3.849	0.045		84.979	0.000			
Linear regression model of the image of the destination in terms of culture N=1,389	**Familiarity**	previous visits	-0.008	0.004	-0.050	-2.037	0.042	0.997	1.0	Adjusted R^2=0.16 Durbin--Watson =1.76
	Information search	strength of search about culture	0.335	0.024	0.356	14.256	0.000	0.977	1.0	
		strength of search about beach and climate	0.235	0.033	-0.178	-7.050	0.000	0.951	1.1	
		strength of search about facilities	-0.043	0.014	-0.077	-3.031	0.002	0.934	1.1	
	Constant		3.347	0.046		73.320	0.000			
Linear regression model of the image of the destination in terms of beach and climate N=1,390	**Information search**	number of information sources consulted	-0.101	0.021	-0.124	-4.876	0.000	0.895	1.1	Adjusted R^2=0.19 Durbin--Watson =1.77
		strength of search about culture	-0.092	0.025	-0.091	-3.618	0.000	0.920	1.1	
		strength of search about beach and climate	0.617	0.035	0.432	17.654	0.000	0.971	1.0	
	Constant		3.152	0.054		58.910	0.000			

As expected, the linear regressions approximately mirrored the results of the correlations. The only exceptions were a few variables that had a significant but weak correlation with image dimensions, that were not included in the regressions (e.g. in the Sintra sample, the strength for searching information about culture was not included in the regression concerning the nature dimension of image), and, also, a few variables that were included in the regressions, even though they had not shown a significant correlation with image dimensions (e.g. in the Gerês sample, number of previous visits was included in the regression concerning the culture dimension of image). These exceptions resulted from independent variables in linear regressions that are highly correlated being excluded, and, from variables being included or not in linear regressions according to whether they have additional explanatory power in relation to other independent variables already included in the model.

Table 10.15. – Variables that significantly influenced the image of destinations concerning attractions – Results of linear regressions for the Sintra sample

	Independent variables		Unst.Coeffic.		St.Coef.	t	Sig.	Collin.Stat.		Other
			B	S.E.	Beta			Toler.	VIF	indicators
Linear regression model of the image of the destination in terms of nature N=1,052	**Familiarity**	duration of travel to the area	-0.005	0.001	-0.120	-4.164	0.000	1.000	1.0	Adjusted R^2=0.12
	Information search	strength of search about nature	0.351	0.031	0.328	11.356	0.000	1.000	1.0	Durbin--Watson =1.76
	Constant		2.935	0.037		78.417	0.000			
Linear regression model of the image of the destination in terms of culture N=1,027	**Familiarity**	duration of travel to the area	-0.006	0.001	-0.149	-5.205	0.000	0.993	1.0	Adjusted R^2=0.17
	Information search	strength of search about culture	0.315	0.024	0.377	13.084	0.000	0.975	1.0	Durbin--Watson =1.76
		strength of search about beach and climate	-0.082	0.035	-0.069	-2.359	0.019	0.946	1.1	
		strength of search about facilities	-0.031	0.015	-0.060	-2.032	0.042	0.928	1.1	
	Constant		3.567	0.050		71.228	0.000			
Linear regression model of the image of the destination in terms of beach and climate N=1,051	**Familiarity**	duration of travel to the area	-0.004	0.001	-0.088	-3.034	0.002	0.994	1.0	Adjusted R^2=0.12
	Information search	strength of search about culture	-0.144	0.032	-0.132	-4.567	0.000	0.996	1.0	Durbin--Watson =1.79
		strength of search about beach and climate	0.492	0.045	0.317	10.932	0.000	0.997	1.0	
	Constant		2.957	0.064		46.179	0.000			

Although the adjusted r^2 of the regressions were rather low, these values are similar and sometimes higher than values found for cognitive image in other papers that used linear regressions. Thus, Boo and Busser (2005) reported that information use and another variable – visit frequency – explained only 6.1% of the variance of cognitive image (this is equivalent to an adjusted r^2 of 0.061). Baloglu and McCleary (1999), reported r^2 of the three cognitive dimensions of image as 0.140, 0.106 and 0.147.

The r^2 values suggest that it is difficult to explain how cognitive image of destinations is formed. Two constructs – familiarity and strength of search – explained between 12% and 23% of the variance of the cognitive dimensions of image considered in the regressions of the Gerês and Sintra samples.

In conclusion, the time spent searching for information about a destination did not have a significant influence on image, and the number of information sources consulted only had a weak significant influence in some image dimensions in the Gerês sample. However, in all the analyses, the strength of search undertaken to obtain information about a specific dimension of attractions had a significant positive impact in the image of these attractions. It was clear that those who made most effort to obtain information about a specific kind of attraction at the destination tended to have a better perception of the destination in terms of those attractions. Thus:

- **Hypothesis 4 → Is fully supported.**

  During the elaboration of consideration sets, the **image of a destination** being considered for a visit (in terms of attractions) is likely to be **positively related to** the **strength of information search** for the attractions of that destination.

10.4. DETERMINANTS OF THE POSITIONING OF DESTINATIONS DURING THE PROCESS OF ELABORATION OF THE CONSIDERATION SETS

One of the primary aims of this thesis was to test whether the positioning of the destinations across the elaboration of consideration sets was influenced by the following features:

- the constraints to travel to destinations;
- the strength of search carried out to obtain information about a destination;
- the direction of search undertaken to obtain information about a destination;
- the image of the destinations regarding attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations.

Within this context, the proposed hypotheses were:

Hypothesis 5. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **negatively related to** the level of **constraints** people perceive **to travelling to that destination**. Specifically, people are likely to include in subsequent consideration sets, destinations to which they perceived lower:
(a) financial constraints;
(b) time constraints;
(c) accessibility constraints.

Hypothesis 6. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the **strength of information search for that destination**. Specifically, people are likely to include in subsequent consideration sets destinations for which they:
(a) spent more time searching for information;
(b) consulted more information sources;
(c) searched for information for a higher number of attributes of those destinations.

Hypothesis 7. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the extent to which **information sources located at that destination** were consulted. This means that the destinations for which people searched for information consulting sources located at those destinations, are more likely to be included in subsequent consideration sets than destinations for which people did not use this kind of sources.

Hypothesis 8. The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the **image of that destination** (in terms of attractions, facilities and a destination's ability to satisfy motivations). Specifically, people are likely to include in the subsequent consideration sets destinations for which they have **a better image in terms of**:
(a) specific attractions and/or;
(b) specific facilities and/or;
(c) the ability to satisfy specific motivations.

In order to test hypotheses 5, 6 and 8, the positioning of the area visited in relation to competitors was assessed by identifying significant differences among the area visited and

its competitors. This procedure has been widely used for measuring the positioning of tourism destinations (Crompton *et al.*, 1992; Hu and Ritchie, 1993; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999; Botha *et al.*, 1999; Baloglu and Mangaloglu, 2001; Orth and Turecková, 2002) (see chapter 2). The objective was to test whether there were significant differences among:

- the constraints that each visitor felt in relation to the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor;
- the strength of search that each visitor undertook to obtain information about the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor;
- the image – in terms of attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations – that each visitor had about the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor.

To accomplish this objective, paired-samples t tests were carried out to compare the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitors considered by the same visitor. A similar approach was adopted by Botha *et al.* (1999) to compare several alternate destinations considered by the same visitor.

Paired-samples t tests were carried out separately on the Gerês and Sintra samples and were only undertaken with visitors who considered visiting 2 or more alternate destinations besides the area they were actually visiting. The results of these tests are presented in tables 10.16. and 10.17.

Table 10.16. - Information search and factors with a potential impact on the information search – differences among the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor (only visitors who though about more than 2 alternate destinations were considered) (Gerês sample)

	Mean			Differences between areas Paired-samples t tests (level of significance)		
	Area visited	Strongest competitor	Weakest competitor	Area visited and strongest competitor	Strongest competitor and weakest competitor	Area visited and weakest competitor
Factors that may have an impact in the information search						
Familiarity with the destinations						
previous visits to the destination	3.16	2.03	1.87	(a)		(a)
elapsed time since the last visit to the destination (in months)	43.70	37.91	48.46			
duration of travel to the destination (in hours)	8.15	8.13	9.51		(a)	(a)
Constraints to travel to the destinations						
financial	1.47	2.06	2.41	(a)	(a)	(a)
time	1.48	1.73	1.78	(a)		(a)
accessibility	1.52	1.54	1.65		(a)	(a)
Information search about the destinations						
time spent searching for information (in minutes)	307.30	296.54	212.53			
number of information sources consulted	2.28	1.86	1.61	(a)	(a)	(a)
number of destination attributes for which information was sought	7.05	5.04	4.37	(a)	(a)	(a)

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

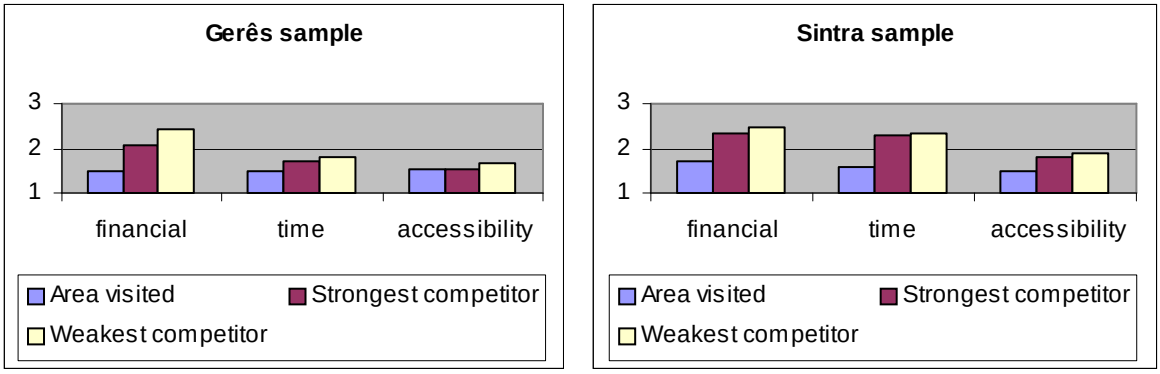
Table 10.17. - Information search and factors with a potential impact on the information search – differences among the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor (only visitors who though about more than 2 alternate destinations were considered) (Sintra sample)

	Mean			Differences between areas Paired-samples t tests (level of significance)		
	Area visited	Strongest competitor	Weakest competitor	Area visited and strongest competitor	Strongest competitor and weakest competitor	Area visited and weakest competitor
Factors that may have an impact in the information search						
Familiarity with the destinations						
previous visits to the destination	0.24	0.44	0.37			
elapsed time since the last visit to the destination (in months)	40.03	59.38	94.58		(a)	
duration of travel to the destination (in hours)	14.99	13.67	14.98	(a)	(b)	
Constraints to travel to the destinations						
financial	1.72	2.32	2.48	(a)	(a)	(a)
time	1.58	2.28	2.32	(a)		(a)
accessibility	1.48	1.8	1.88	(a)	(b)	(a)
Information search about the destinations						
time spent searching for information (in minutes)	234.56	190.62	115.80	(b)		
number of information sources consulted	2.87	1.75	1.38	(a)	(a)	(a)
number of destination attributes for which information was sought	5.31	3.47	2.75	(a)	(a)	(a)

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

Considering the constraints people felt to travel to the destinations, in both samples respondents felt more constrained to travel to the areas classified as weakest competitors and then, by decreasing order, to the strongest competitors and to the area visited (tables 10.16., 10.17., figure 10.6.). The major constraints to travel to competing destinations were financial constraints, followed by lack of time. Accessibility played a less significant role as a barrier to travel to these destinations. When Sintra and Gerês are compared in this context, the major constraints to travel to Sintra were the financial ones, whereas the major constraint to travel to Gerês was the lack of accessibility of this area. Although visitors mentioned they felt constraints on travel to Gerês and to Sintra they negotiated these constraints, corroborating the idea of Jackson *et al.* (1993) that constraints are not insurmountable barriers. Visitors were not very constrained (even for travelling to the areas considered as the weakest competitors) since, for the three kinds of areas – area visited, strongest competitors and weakest competitors – none of the three kinds of constrains (on average) surpassed 2.5 on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. Although significant differences were found between the destinations, sometimes this difference was considerably low (e.g. this happened in the Gerês sample, when the strongest and weakest competitors were compared in terms of accessibility constraints).

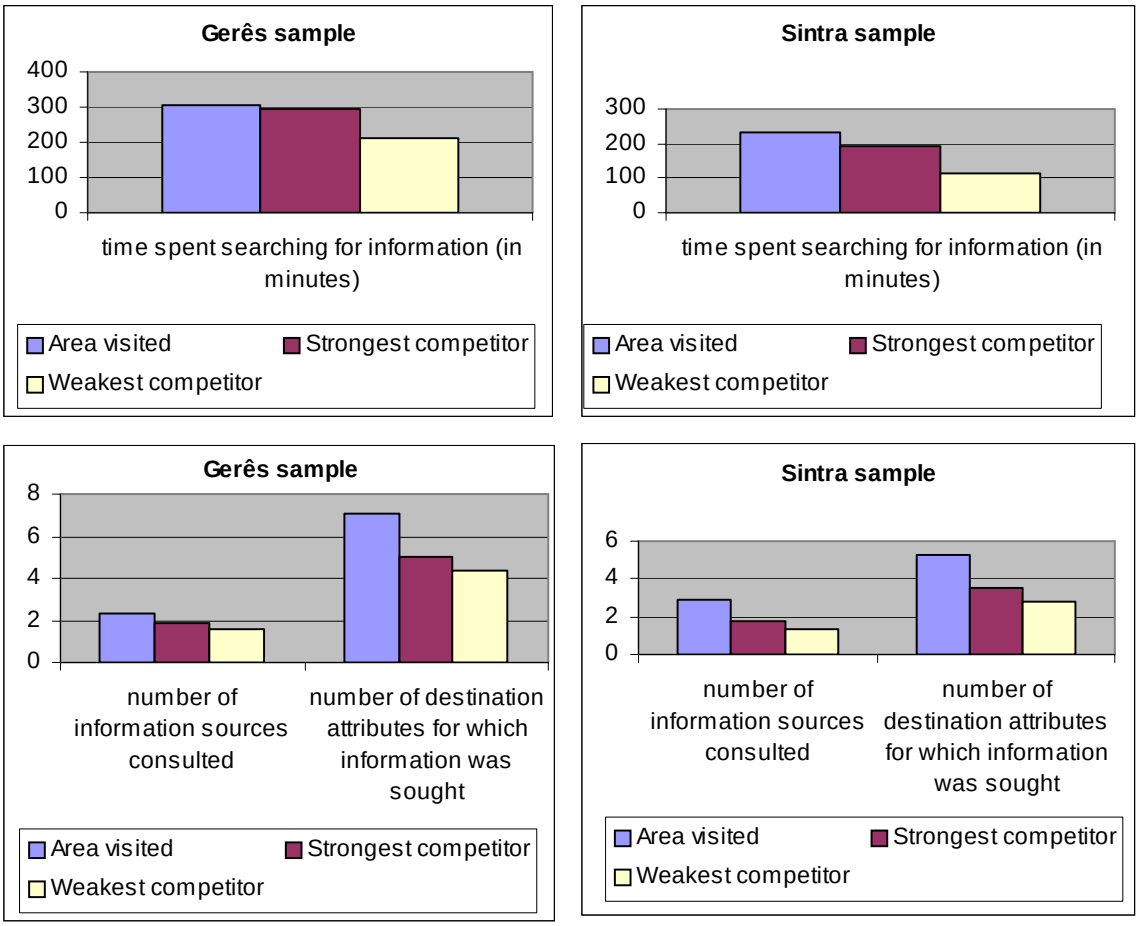
Figure 10.6. – Constraints felt to travel to the area visited, the strongest competitors and weakest competitors (only visitors who considered 2 or more alternate destinations)



On strength of information, there were several significant differences between the strength of search undertaken to obtain information about the three kinds of areas being compared (tables 10.16., 10.17., figure 10.7.). Differences occurred mainly on the number of

information sources consulted and on the number of attributes for which information was sought. In all the situations where significant differences were found, visitors tended to spend more effort searching for information about the area visited than for the strongest competitor. They also tended to invest more effort in obtaining information about the strongest competitor than about the weakest competitor.

Figure 10.7. – Information search about the area visited, the strongest competitors and weakest competitors (only visitors who considered 2 or more alternate destinations)



The results of paired-samples t tests concerning destination image are reported in tables 10.18, 10.19, and figure 10.8.). In both samples several significant differences were identified among the area visited, the strongest competitors and the weakest competitors. When significant differences were found, visitors were likely to have better perceptions of

the area visited than of the strongest competitor and, also, to have better perceptions of the strongest competitor than of the weakest competitor (tables 10.18, 10.19, and figure 10.8.). There were a few exceptions to this trend. For example, Gerês competitors were better than Gerês in terms of beach environment. Sintra visitors found that both competitors of Sintra had better accommodation in general and camping areas than Sintra. Paired-samples t tests showed that, in both samples, there were significant differences among the area visited and competitors, both in terms of ability to satisfy motivations, attractions and facilities.

These results show that, in both samples, respondents chose to visit a specific park that they found to be much better than the alternate destinations on several features of destination image – perceptions about attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations. However, in some cases, significant differences reflected small differences between the destinations being compared (e.g. the difference found in terms of "escape and relaxation" between the area visited (3.01) and the weakest competitor (2.9) in the Sintra sample).

Table 10.18. – Image of the area visited – differences among the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor (Gerês sample)

	Mean			Differences between areas Paired-samples t tests (level of significance)		
	Area visited	Strongest competitor	Weakest competitor	Area visited and strongest competitor	Strongest competitor and weakest competitor	Area visited and weakest competitor
Ability to satisfy some kind of motivations						
socialization	3.06	3.12	3.07			
escape and relaxation	4.23	3.86	3.74	(a)	(a)	(a)
novelty	3.78	3.72	3.63		(b)	(a)
Attractions						
nature	4.33	3.41	3.26	(a)	(b)	(a)
cultural attractions	3.17	3.25	3.17			
peacefulness	4.12	3.56	3.44	(a)	(b)	(a)
beach environment	3.02	3.49	3.44	(a)		(a)
Facilities						
accommodation	3.38	3.19	3.24	(a)		
facilities for providing information	3.31	3.29	3.30			
restaurants	3.13	3.06	3.12			
camping areas	2.78	2.35	2.30	(a)		(a)
safety	3.55	3.38	3.37		(a)	(a)

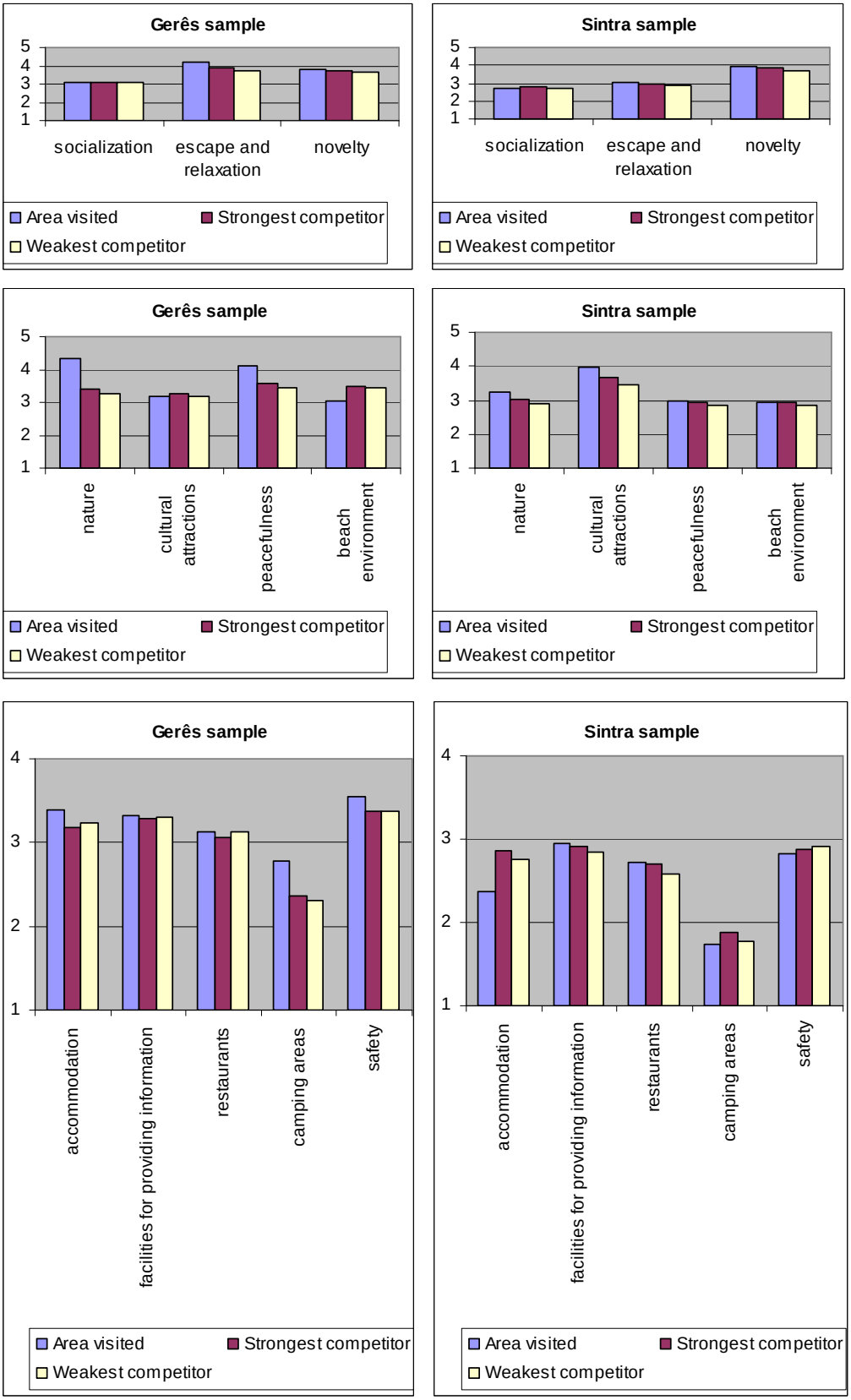
Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

Table 10.19. - Image of the area visited – differences among the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor (Sintra sample)

	Mean			Differences between areas Paired-samples t tests (level of significance)		
	Area visited	Strongest competitor	Weakest competitor	Area visited and strongest competitor	Strongest competitor and weakest competitor	Area visited and weakest competitor
Ability to satisfy some kind of motivations						
socialization	2.69	2.78	2.73	(b)		
escape and relaxation	3.01	2.98	2.90			(b)
novelty	3.92	3.85	3.68		(a)	(a)
Attractions						
nature	3.22	3.02	2.91	(a)	(b)	(a)
cultural attractions	3.98	3.68	3.45	(a)	(a)	(a)
peacefulness	2.97	2.92	2.84			(b)
beach environment	2.94	2.95	2.84			
Facilities						
accommodation	2.37	2.86	2.76	(a)		(a)
facilities for providing information	2.95	2.92	2.84			
restaurants	2.71	2.69	2.58		(b)	
camping areas	1.73	1.87	1.78	(b)		(b)
safety	2.83	2.87	2.91			

Key: (a) p « 0.01; (b) 0.01 < p « 0.05

Figure 10.8. – Perceptions of the area visited, the strongest competitors and weakest competitors (only visitors who considered 2 or more alternate destinations)



To test hypothesis 7 concerning the impact of the direction of search on positioning, chi-square tests were performed to test whether destination based search was more likely to be used to obtain information about the area visited than about the strongest competitor and, additionally, to verify if this kind of search also was more likely to be used for obtaining information about the strongest competitor than about the weakest competitor.

A new variable to represent direction of search was created. It was composed of six categories:

- the five search strategies represented by the five clusters:
  (i) destination based search;
  (ii) commercial printed material search;
  (iii) media and books search;
  (iv) only friends and relatives search;
  (v) guides dependent search.
- a sixth category corresponding to the option of not searching.

For the Gerês sample, a chi-square analysis was carried out having, as input variables, the following:

- A variable representing the direction of search mentioned above, which represented the type of information sources consulted.
- A variable which represented destinations in different consideration sets, and that also had three categories - area visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor.

The same procedure was followed for the Sintra sample. Results of these chi-square analyses are given in table 10.20.. The chi-square analyses were significant, both in the Gerês sample (X^2=83.993; sig.=0.000) and in the Sintra sample (X^2=184.615; sig.=0.000). Data are interpreted based mainly on the percentages reported in the table. In both samples, the percentage of individuals adopting the "destination based search" was higher in the case of the strongest competitor than in the case of the weakest competitor, but was even higher in the case of the area visited than in the case of the strongest competitor. For example, in the Gerês sample, 25% of respondents consulted information sources located

in the area visited, whereas a lower percentage of respondents consulted sources located in the strongest competitor area (15%) or in the weakest competitor area (13%).

Although it is beyond the scope of the hypotheses being tested in this thesis, the "commercial printed material search" and "guides dependent search" followed the same pattern of the "destination based search" as search strategies which were more important (used by a higher percentage of people) in the case of the area visited than in areas not visited. However, this should be regarded tentatively given that, in Gerês the percentage of people using these two strategies didn't highly differ in the cases of the area visited, of the strongest competitor and of the weakest competitor. In contrast to what happened with the "destination based search", more people opted for "not searching" in the cases of areas not visited (strongest and weakest competitors) than in the case of areas chosen to visit. The "media and books search" was more important in the cases of areas not visited than in areas visited. Hence, in Gerês, only 11% adopted the "media and books search" to obtain information about Gerês, whereas a higher percentage adopted this strategy to collect information about the strongest competitor of Gerês (20%) and the weakest competitor (22%). However, in Sintra, the percentage of people using this strategy did not highly differ in the cases of the area visited, of the strongest competitor and of the weakest competitor.

Table 10.20. – Search strategy in terms of information sources across the stages of elaboration of the consideration sets

			Type of area							
			area visited		strongest competitor		weakest competitor		Total	
			N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column
Gerês	Direction of search in terms of sources (clusters)	Did not search	211	19	110	28	90	29	411	23
		Destination based search	275	25	59	15	39	13	373	21
		Commercial printed material search	247	22	77	20	53	17	377	21
		Media and books search	117	11	78	20	69	22	264	15
		Only friends and relatives search	198	18	55	14	45	15	298	16
		Guides dependent search	63	6	15	4	13	4	91	5
		Total	1,111	100	394	100	309	100	1,814	100
Sintra	Direction of search in terms of sources (clusters)	Did not search	17	3	89	22	102	32	208	16
		Destination based search	136	24	54	13	35	11	225	18
		Commercial printed material search	145	26	72	18	45	14	262	21
		Media and books search	94	17	82	20	56	18	232	18
		Only friends and relatives search	22	4	29	7	32	10	83	6
		Guides dependent search	142	26	77	19	48	15	267	21
		Total	556	100	403	100	318	100	1,277	100

The paired-samples t tests and the chi-square analyses presented in this section confirmed that the positioning of destinations during the elaboration of the consideration sets was related to the determinants of positioning considered in hypotheses 5 to 8. To assess the power of these determinants on explaining the probability of the destination being selected as a destination to visit, logistic regressions were carried out. Two kinds of logistical regressions were carried out:

- First, the logistic regressions assessed the probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit rather than being limited to inclusion in the early consideration set and not being included in subsequent sets. The dependent variable was a binary variable with two categories: 1 (destination chosen as the destination to visit); 0 (destination only included in the early consideration set and not in subsequent sets);
- A second logistic regression analysis assessed the probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit rather than being limited to inclusion in the late consideration set and not being selected as a destination to visit. The dependent variable was a binary variable with two categories: 1 (destination chosen as the destination to visit); 0 (destination only included in the late consideration set and not in subsequent sets).

The independent variables represented potential determinants of positioning:

- variables representing structural constraints (correspond to the variables already incorporated on the logistic regression already presented in section 10.2.):
  - financial constraints;
  - time constraints;
  - accessibility constraints.;
- variables representing dimensions of destination image (generally correspond to variables already incorporated in the correlations presented in section 10.3.):
  - Image of the destination in terms of nature
  - Image of the destination in terms of culture
  - Image of the destination in terms of peacefulness

  - Image of the destination in terms of beach and climate
  - Image of the destination in terms of facilities
  - Image of the destination in terms of ability to satisfy motivations related to socialization
  - Image of the destination in terms of ability to satisfy motivations related to "escape and relaxation"
  - Image of the destination in terms of ability to satisfy motivations related to novelty
- Variables representing familiarity with the destination (correspond to the variables incorporated in the logistic regression presented in section 10.2.):
  - Number of previous visits made to the destination
  - Duration of travel to the destination (in hours);
- Variables representing strength of information search:
  - Time spent searching for information about the destination;
  - Number of information sources consulted;
  - Number of destination attributes for which the information was sought;
- Variables representing the direction of information search:
  - Destination based search – binary variable with two categories: 1 (yes); 0 (no).

Since the variables of strength of search could be highly correlated with those representing the direction of search, four rather than two logistic regressions were carried out in order to avoid incorporating variables that represented both strength and direction of search in the same regression. Table 10.21. specifies the type of variables included in each of the four regressions.

Table 10.21. – Specification of the logistic regressions on the positioning of destinations

	Logistic regressions on the positioning of the destinations			
Dependent variable	probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit instead of being included in the early consideration set and not being included in subsequent sets area visited (1) vs. weakest competitor (0)	probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit instead of being included in the early consideration set and not being included in subsequent sets area visited (1) vs. weakest competitor (0)	probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit instead of being included in the late consideration set and not being selected as a destination to visit area visited (1) vs. strongest competitor (0)	probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit instead of being included in the late consideration set and not being selected as a destination to visit area visited (1) vs. strongest competitor (0)
Independent variables	Variables representing: constraints familiarity destination image strength of search	Variables representing: constraints familiarity destination image direction of search	Variables representing: constraints familiarity destination image strength of search	Variables representing: constraints familiarity destination image direction of search

The same four logistic regressions were undertaken for the Gerês and Sintra samples. The selection of the independent variables was, again, done by the backward elimination procedure based on the likelihood ratio. The results are presented in tables 10.22. to 10.25.. An analysis of the classification tables, of the Hosmer and Lemeshow test, and of the Nagelkerke R^2 suggested that the logistic models had a strong goodness of fit and that a high number were correctly classified.

Table 10.22. - Variables that significantly influenced the positioning of destinations – Results of the logistic regression referring to the probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit or remaining in the late consideration sets (Strength of search considered)

			Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=1,380	Familiarity		previous visits	0.051	0.021	5.756	0.016	1.053	
	Constraints		financial constraints	-1.396	0.132	111.852	0.000	0.247	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.66
			time constraints	-0.259	0.132	3.828	0.050	0.772	
			accessibility constraints	0.722	0.152	22.488	0.000	2.060	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		socialization	-0.350	0.115	9.315	0.002	0.705	
			novelty	-0.396	0.146	7.322	0.007	0.673	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test 13.587 (sig. 0.093)
	Image of destinations' attributes	Attractions	nature	2.735	0.187	213.242	0.000	15.410	
			peacefulness	0.382	0.116	10.847	0.001	1.466	
			beach environment	-0.705	0.109	41.608	0.000	0.494	
		Facilities	restaurants	0.187	0.095	3.832	0.050	1.205	
			camping areas	0.154	0.066	5.516	0.019	1.167	
			facilities for providing information	-0.394	0.095	17.253	0.000	0.675	
	Information search	Strength	time spent searching information	-0.000	0.000	5.240	0.022	1.000	
			number of information sources consulted	-0.153	0.085	3.280	0.070	0.858	Model X^2= =821.532 (sig. 0.000)
			number of attributes about which information was collected	0.084	0.032	6.835	0.009	1.087	
	Constant			-4.460	0.729	37.471	0.000	0.012	
Sintra N=885	Familiarity		duration of travel to the area	0.013	0.005	7.772	0.005	1.014	
	Constraints		financial constraints	-0.507	0.116	19.251	0.000	0.602	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.62
			time constraints	-1.144	0.130	77.485	0.000	0.319	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		socialization	-0.479	0.113	17.884	0.000	0.619	
			escape and relaxation	0.447	0.113	15.565	0.000	1.564	
			novelty	-0.420	0.146	8.268	0.004	0.657	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test 13.781 (sig. 0.088)
	Image of destinations' attributes	Attractions	nature	1.094	0.151	52.376	0.000	2.988	
			cultural attractions	1.068	0.157	46.185	0.000	2.910	
		Facilities	accommodation	-0.742	0.097	57.956	0.000	0.476	
			restaurants	0.249	0.093	7.093	0.008	1.283	
	Information search	Strength	time spent searching information	-0.001	0.000	10.391	0.001	0.999	
			number of information sources consulted	0.895	0.104	74.048	0.000	2.448	Model X^2= =538.486 (sig. 0.000)
			number of attributes about which information was collected	0.269	0.044	36.990	0.000	1.308	
	Constant			-4.145	0.753	30.322	0.000	0.016	

Key: X - reference category.

Results in these tables almost exactly mirror results obtained in the paired-samples t tests, concerning the type of impact that these variables have on positioning (positive or negative impact). The few exceptions correspond to variables where the significant differences found in the paired-samples t tests referred to small differences in terms of average values between the destinations being compared.

Table 10.23.- Variables that significantly influenced the positioning of destinations – Results of the logistic regression referring to the probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit or remaining in the late consideration sets (Direction of search considered)

			Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=1,127	**Familiarity**		**previous visits**	0.050	0.023	4.610	0.032	1.051	
	Constraints		**financial constraints**	-1.068	0.125	72.985	0.000	0.344	Nagelkerke
			time constraints	-0.222	0.131	2.877	0.090	0.801	R^2 = 0.54
			accessibility constraints	0.672	0.151	19.789	0.000	1.957	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		**socialization**	-0.300	0.109	7.539	0.006	0.741	
			novelty	-0.252	0.141	3.198	0.074	0.777	Hosmer
	Image of destinations' attributes	**Attractions**	**nature**	2.102	0.165	161.802	0.000	8.182	and
			peacefulness	0.265	0.113	5.461	0.019	1.303	Lemeshow
			beach environment	-0.519	0.104	24.725	0.000	0.595	Test
		Facilities	**restaurants**	0.155	0.092	2.880	0.090	1.168	9.665
			camping areas	0.202	0.064	9.910	0.002	1.224	(sig. 0.289)
			facilities for providing information	-0.314	0.091	11.890	0.001	0.731	
	Information search	**Direction**	**destination based search**						Model X^2=
			no	X					=511.484
			yes	0.627	0.227	7.628	0.006	1.872	(sig. 0.000)
	Constant			-3.774	0.694	29.588	0.000	0.023	
Sintra N=796	**Familiarity**		**duration of travel to the area**	0.009	0.005	3.845	0.050	1.010	Nagelkerke
	Constraints		**financial constraints**	-0.614	0.112	30.037	0.000	0.541	R^2 = 0.48
			time constraints	-0.859	0.112	58.854	0.000	0.423	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		**socialization**	-0.411	0.107	14.628	0.000	0.663	Hosmer
			novelty	-0.416	0.141	8.704	0.003	0.660	and
	Image of destinations' attributes	**Attractions**	**nature**	1.201	0.144	69.979	0.000	3.322	Lemeshow
			cultural attractions	1.113	0.150	54.768	0.000	3.044	Test
		Facilities	**accommodation**	-0.382	0.079	23.498	0.000	0.682	11.989
	Information search	**Direction**	**destination based search**						(sig. 0.152)
			no	X					
			yes	1.358	0.255	28.246	0.000	3.888	Model X^2=
	Constant			-1.144	0.660	3.001	0.083	0.319	=338.104
									(sig. 0.000)

Key: X - reference category.

Table 10.24.- Variables that significantly influenced the positioning of destinations – Results of the logistic regression referring to the probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit or remaining in the early consideration sets (Strength of search considered)

			Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=1,294	Familiarity		previous visits	0.055	0.027	4.032	0.045	1.056	Nagelkerke
	Constraints		financial constraints	-2.576	0.215	143.447	0.000	0.076	R^2 = 0.81
			accessibility constraints	0.943	0.207	20.826	0.000	2.568	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		socialization	-0.476	0.156	9.318	0.002	0.621	Hosmer and
	Image of destinations' attributes	Attractions	nature	3.581	0.294	148.352	0.000	35.913	Lemeshow
			peacefulness	0.737	0.167	19.458	0.000	2.089	Test
			beach environment	-0.804	0.161	25.058	0.000	0.448	12.523
		Facilities	camping areas	0.349	0.097	12.881	0.000	1.417	(sig. 0.129)
			facilities for providing information	-0.919	0.149	37.833	0.000	0.399	
	Information search	Strength	number of attributes about which information was collected	0.081	0.036	5.039	0.025	1.084	Model X^2= =935.757
	Constant			-6.127	0.971	39.843	0.000	0.002	(sig. 0.000)
Sintra N=797	Constraints		financial constraints	-0.862	0.151	32.743	0.000	0.422	Nagelkerke
			time constraints	-1.415	0.192	54.270	0.000	0.243	R^2 = 0.78
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		socialization	-0.685	0.160	18.230	0.000	0.504	
			escape and relaxation	0.662	0.163	16.521	0.000	1.938	
			novelty	-0.439	0.204	4.620	0.032	0.645	Hosmer
	Image of destinations' attributes	Attractions	nature	1.072	0.215	24.875	0.000	2.921	and
			cultural attractions	1.822	0.233	61.048	0.000	6.183	Lemeshow
		Facilities	accommodation	-0.917	0.139	43.400	0.000	0.400	Test
			restaurants	0.496	0.131	14.396	0.000	1.642	9.5
			safety	-0.297	0.110	7.317	0.007	0.743	(sig. 0.302)
	Information search	Strength	number of information sources consulted	1.367	0.166	68.174	0.000	3.922	
			number of attributes about which information was collected	0.392	0.065	35.823	0.000	1.479	Model X^2= =653.503 (sig. 0.000)
	Constant			-5.339	0.993	28.882	0.000	0.005	

Key: X - reference category.

The most important additional information of the logistical regression, when compared to paired-samples t tests is the strength of the impact of each variable on positioning and the explanatory power of the independent variables. An analysis of the Nagelkerke R^2 shows that these values are between 0.48 and 0.81, on all eight regressions suggesting that the set of independent variables included in the logistic regressions had high explanatory power in explaining the positioning of destinations during the elaboration of consideration sets.

Table 10.25.- Variables that significantly influenced the positioning of destination – Results of the logistic regression referring to the probability of a destination being selected as a destination to visit or remaining in the early consideration sets (Direction of search considered)

			Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=1,046	Familiarity		previous visits	0.066	0.031	4.590	0.032	1.068	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.77
	Constraints		financial constraints	-2.189	0.217	102.111	0.000	0.112	
			accessibility constraints	0.951	0.223	18.162	0.000	2.589	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		socialization	-0.615	0.161	14.616	0.000	0.541	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test 14.154 (sig. 0.078)
	Image of destinations' attributes	Attractions	nature	3.070	0.272	126.933	0.000	21.541	
			peacefulness	0.777	0.170	20.764	0.000	2.174	
			beach environment	-0.869	0.168	26.837	0.000	0.419	
		Facilities	camping areas	0.388	0.102	14.354	0.000	1.474	
			facilities for providing information	-0.807	0.154	27.463	0.000	0.446	
	Information search	Direction	destination based search						Model X^2= =676.962 (sig. 0.000)
			no	X					
			yes	1.272	0.372	11.703	0.001	3.567	
	Constant			-4.589	0.926	24.564	0.000	0.010	
Sintra N=687	Constraints		financial constraints	-1.143	0.159	51.692	0.000	0.319	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.66
			time constraints	-0.912	0.151	36.646	0.000	0.402	
	Destination's ability to satisfy motivations		socialization	-0.870	0.164	28.058	0.000	0.419	Hosmer and Lemeshow Test 14.093 (sig. 0.079)
	Image of destinations' attributes	Attractions	nature	1.176	0.205	33.042	0.000	3.240	
			cultural attractions	2.041	0.232	77.287	0.000	7.700	
			beach environment	0.400	0.155	6.614	0.010	1.491	
		Facilities	accommodation	-0.632	0.126	25.028	0.000	0.531	
			restaurants	0.365	0.128	8.167	0.004	1.441	
	Information search	Direction	destination based search						Model X^2= =402.201 (sig. 0.000)
			no	X					
			yes	1.881	0.386	23.719	0.000	6.559	
	Constant			-3.958	0.905	19.149	0.000	0.019	

Key: X - reference category.

As expected, the Nagelkerke R^2 was higher in the regressions concerning the probability of the destination being selected to be visited comparing to others remaining in the early consideration set. These regressions have a Nagelkerke R^2 between 0.66 and 0.81, whereas the other regressions had a Nagelkerke R^2 between 0.48 and 0.66. Thus, the power of the independent variables was stronger for explaining why a destination in the late consideration set was selected for being visited, rather than remaining in the early consideration set. This is likely to happen because the paired-samples t tests showed that the number of significant differences between the area visited and the weakest competitor is much higher than the number of differences between the area visited and the strongest competitor. Consequently, it is much easier to distinguish the area visited from its weakest competitor than from its strongest competitor.

The strength of the impact of each variable on positioning, given by the Exp(B), suggests that the variable which contributed most to the Gerês park being selected as a destination to visit by Gerês respondents was the image they had of Gerês in terms of nature. In the four logistic regressions concerning Gerês, the image of the destination in terms of nature was the variable that had the highest Exp(B). At the Sintra natural park, its selection as a destination to visit was highly related to the image of the destination in terms of natural and cultural attractions, the number of information sources consulted, and the use of destination based sources. Thus, major reasons why destinations were selected as a destination to visit correspond to the main advantages that these destinations had in relation to competitors.

These logistic regressions identified the main weaknesses of the area visited in relation to competing destinations. The main weaknesses of the Gerês park, are related to the beach environment and to the facilities for providing information (since these variables are those that have a higher negative B) and the accessibility constraints (given that these constraints have a high positive B[7]). While the beach environment is highly dependent on the resources of the destination and cannot be easily modified, enhancement of facilities for providing information and improved accessibility of the park could contribute to improving the image of the park.

The major weakness of the Sintra park was accommodation. Although visitors interviewed in the Sintra park came to the park recognizing this weakness, it could have inhibited others from not coming to this destination.

No hypotheses were formulated concerning the impact of familiarity on positioning, since no consistent support was found in the literature review regarding this relationship. The results of the logistic regressions where this construct was incorporated also did not provide consistent findings.

As far as structural constraints were considered, both the paired-samples t tests and the logistic regressions showed that visitors were likely to include in the subsequent set,

[7] In this case a positive B is a weakness, since it means that the area visited has higher accessibility constraints than its competing destinations.

destinations to which they had fewer financial and time constraints. The financial constraints had a negative impact on positioning in all the 8 logistic regressions, while the time constraints had a negative impact in the 6 regressions where they were incorporated. Although, the Gerês park was classified as having more accessibility constraints than its competitors, these results were not found in the Sintra sample. These results suggest:

- **Hypothesis 5 →** Is **fully supported.**

  The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **negatively related to** the level of **constraints** people perceive **to travelling to that destination**. Specifically, people are likely to include in subsequent consideration sets, destinations to which they perceived lower:

  (a) financial constraints;
  (b) time constraints;
  (c) accessibility constraints.

In terms of strength of search of information about the destination, in the paired-samples t tests it was found that:

- in both the Gerês and Sintra samples, significant differences were detected in the strength of information search (in the number of information sources consulted and number of destination attributes for which information was collected) for obtaining information about the area visited, its strongest competitors and its weakest competitors;
- in both the Gerês and Sintra samples, there was a higher strength (in terms of information sources consulted and destination attributes for which information was collected) in searching for information about the area visited than in searching for information about the strongest competitors; the strength of information search was even lower for the weakest competitors than for the strongest ones.

All the logistic regressions where the strength of search was incorporated revealed that respondents tended to make more effort for obtaining information about the area visited

than about its competitors. The impact of the strength of search was especially strong at Sintra, perhaps because visitors to Sintra are less familiar with the area and, in consequence, need more information about it. There was only one regression in the Gerês sample where the number of information sources consulted had a negative impact on positioning that was overcome by the positive impact of the number of attributes about which information was collected. The variable that corresponded to the number of information sources consulted was retained in the regression, but its impact on positioning was not significant. These findings suggest:

- **Hypothesis 6 →** Is **fully supported.**

  The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the **strength of information search for that destination**. Specifically, people are likely to include in subsequent consideration sets destinations for which they:

  (a) spent more time searching for information;
  (b) consulted more information sources;
  (c) searched for information for a higher number of attributes of those destinations.

The chi-square tests showed that information sources located in the destinations were more likely to be used when searching for information about the area visited than about the strongest competitor, and were also more used in the case of the strongest than in the weakest competitor. All the logistic regressions corroborated that destinations about which information was searched using information sources located at the destination, had more probability of being included in the subsequent consideration set. Thus, the chi-square tests and the logistic regressions confirm that:

- **Hypothesis 7 →** Is **fully supported.**

  The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the extent to which **information sources located at that destination** were consulted. This means that the

> destinations for which people searched for information consulting sources located at those destinations, are more likely to be included in subsequent consideration sets than destinations for which people did not use this kind of sources.

The paired-samples t tests revealed that, in both samples, the area visited and competitors, significantly differed in terms of attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations. Results of the paired-samples t tests and of the logistics, relating to image of the destination confirmed that attractions are likely to have a positive impact in the positioning of destinations across the formation of consideration sets. Attractions are likely to explain the inclusion of a destination in subsequent consideration sets. Natural attractions made an outstanding contribution to the Gerês park achieving a competitive position in relation to its competing destinations. The Sintra park's competitive position in relation to its competing destinations results both from its natural and cultural attractions. The attractions were important reasons why people were more likely to choose to visit this specific destination and not others. Although some attractions had a negative impact on the positioning of destinations (e.g. beach environment, in the case of Gerês), this impact was relatively low.

Some significant differences were found between the area visited, the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor, concerning the facilities and the ability of these destinations to satisfy motivations. In both samples there was a positive relationship between the positioning of the destinations and the ability to satisfy some motivations. This occurred, for example, in the case of "escape and relaxation" in the Gerês sample, and "novelty" in the Sintra sample. In the Gerês sample some facilities (e.g. accommodation and camping areas) were also positively related to positioning. Although, in the logistic regressions, facilities and the ability to satisfy some motivations did not have as much impact as attractions in positioning, this does not mean that these two constructs are not relevant in positioning. The results of t tests should always be taken into consideration and, as already noted, variables are only included in logistic regressions if they are not highly correlated with other variables and if they have additional explanatory power.

There were some dimensions of destinations' image (some attractions, some facilities and perceptions about the ability to satisfy some motivations) that were not positively related to

positioning. However, given that t tests show the positioning of both Gerês and Sintra were positively related to at least some attractions, some motivations (and in the case of Gerês some kind of facilities) it is possible to conclude that:

- **Hypothesis 8 →** Is **fully supported.**

  The **position of a destination** (defined by the last consideration set in which the destination was included) is likely to be **positively related to** the **image of that destination** (in terms of attractions, facilities and a destination's ability to satisfy motivations). Specifically, people are likely to include in the subsequent consideration sets destinations for which they have **a better image in terms of**:

  (a) specific attractions and/or;
  (b) specific facilities and/or;
  (c) the ability to satisfy specific motivations.

10.5. NUMBER AND TYPE OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES AMONG DESTINATIONS OF DIFFERENT CONSIDERATION SETS

The last hypotheses of the model proposed concerned to the number and type of significant differences found among destinations of different consideration sets and are presented next.

In the following hypotheses:

- the destination included in the late consideration set and selected as a destination to visit was designated as **area visited;**
- the destinations included in the late consideration set but not selected as a destination to visit were designated as **strongest competitors**;
- the destinations included in the early consideration set but not included in the late consideration sets were designated as **weakest competitors**;
- the **image of a destination** corresponds to the perceptions people have of the destination in terms of attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations.

Hypothesis 9:

(a) The total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the weakest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**

is likely to be higher than

the total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**.

(b) The total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**

is likely to be higher than

the total **number of significant differences** between the strongest and weakest competitors that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**.

Hypothesis 10:

The percentage of **significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **(i) facilities** and **(ii) structural constraints**

is likely to be higher than

the percentage of **significant differences** between the strongest and weakest competitors that correspond to **(i) facilities** and **(ii) structural constraints**.

These hypotheses were tested based on the paired-samples t tests analyses carried out in the last section. Table 10.26. was formulated from the results reported in tables 10.16. to 10.19. and provides a summary of the number and types of differences identified.

Table 10.26. - Number of significant differences among the area visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor - image of the destinations and constraints to travel to the destinations

		Differences between areas Paired-samples t tests					
		Area visited and strongest competitor		Strongest competitor and weakest competitor		Area visited and weakest competitor	
		N	%	N	%	N	%
Gerês sample	Ability to satisfy motivations and tourism attractions	4	50%	4	57%	5	50%
	Facilities and constraints to travel to the destination	4	50%	3	43%	5	50%
	Total number of diferences	8	100%	7	100%	10	100%
Sintra sample	Ability to satisfy motivations and tourism attractions	3	38%	3	50%	5	50%
	Facilities and constraints to travel to the destination	5	63%	3	50%	5	50%
	Total number of diferences	8	100%	6	100%	10	100%

Key: elaborated based on tables 10.16. to 10.19.

As table 10.26. shows, in the Gerês sample there were more significant differences between the area visited and the weakest competitor (10) than between the area visited and the strongest competitor (8). The number of differences between the area visited and the strongest competitor (8) also is higher than the number of differences between the strongest and weakest competitors (7). The same situation occurred in the Sintra sample. The results confirm what was posited in the hypotheses, and suggest that potential visitors are likely to form increasingly homogeneous consideration sets as they progress through the process of destination choice.

As far as hypothesis 10 is concerned, in the table 10.26., in the Gerês sample, the number of significant differences concerning facilities and constraints, was higher between the area visited and the strongest competitor (4) than between the strongest competitor and the weakest competitor (3). The same pattern occurred in the Sintra sample, where the discrepancy between the number of significant differences was higher. Additionally, in the Gerês sample differences concerning facilities and constraints represented 43% of the significant differences on image dimensions and constraints between the strongest and weakest competitor. However, this percentage grows to 50% when the significant differences between the strongest competitor and the area visited are considered. In the Sintra samples these numbers rise from 50% to 63%. This suggests that the relative impact of facilities and constraints tends to increase as the process of choice sets progresses.

Although it goes beyond the hypotheses being tested in this thesis, analyses were undertaken to see if the kind of information collected changed with the stage of evolution of the consideration sets. To accomplish this, chi-square tests were done, in order to test the relationship that existed between two variables (tables 10.27. and 10.28.):

- stage of evolution of the choice sets – represented by the area visited, strongest competitor and weakest competitor;
- and the kind of information collected measured by one of the two following binary variables:
  - having searched for information about tourism attractions at that destination (yes; no); or
  - having searched for information about facilities at that destination (yes; no).

In both the Gerês and Sintra samples, there was no significant relationship between the direction of search in terms of tourism attractions and the stage of evolution of the choice sets. In contrast, significant relationships were found between the stage of evolution of consideration sets and the search for facilities in both the Gerês sample (X^2=11.576; sig.=0.003) and the Sintra sample (X^2=20.119; sig.=0.000). In both samples, respondents searched for more information about facilities in the area visited and, in decreasing order, about the strongest competitor and about the weakest competitor.

Table 10.27. – Direction of search across the elaboration of consideration sets - Chi-square tests (Gerês sample)

Gerês sample		Area visited		Strongest competitors		Weakest competitors		Total		Sig.	Pearson chi--square	df
		N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column			
Searched information about attractions	No	12	4.18	6	2.54	8	3.65	26	3.50			
	Yes	275	95.82	230	97.46	211	96.35	716	96.50	0.592	1.049	2
	Total	287		236		219		742				
Searched information about facilities	No	32	11.15	39	16.53	49	22.37	120	16.17			
	Yes	255	88.85	197	83.47	170	77.63	622	83.83	0.003	11.576	2
	Total	287		236		219		742				

Table 10.28. – Direction of search across the elaboration of consideration sets - Chi-square tests (Sintra sample)

Sintra sample		Area visited		Strongest competitors		Weakest competitors		Total		Sig.	Pearson chi--square	df
		N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column	N	% by column			
Searched information about attractions	No	5	1.62	10	4.12	11	5.14	26	3.4			
	Yes	303	98.38	233	95.88	203	94.86	739	96.60	0.070	5.314	2
	Total	308		243		214		765				
Searched information about facilities	No	61	19.81	73	30.04	80	37.38	214	27.97			
	Yes	247	80.19	170	69.96	134	62.62	551	72.03	0.000	20.119	2
	Total	308		243		214		765				

These findings corroborate that facilities are likely to have more impact in the latter stages of the destination choice process.

In conclusion, in both samples there were more significant differences between the area visited and the weakest competitor, than between the area visited and the strongest competitor. Further, in both samples the number of significant differences between the area visited and the strongest competitor was higher than the number of significant differences found between the strongest and weakest competitors. Thus:

- **Hypothesis 9 →** Is **fully supported.**

  (a) The total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the weakest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**

  is likely to be higher than

  the total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**.

  (b) The total **number of significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**

  is likely to be higher than

  the total **number of significant differences** between the strongest and weakest competitors that correspond to **constraints to travelling to a destination** and the **image of the destinations**.

The empirical study showed that facilities and constraints are responsible for a higher percentage of the significant differences found between the area visited and the strongest competitor than between the two competitors (the strongest and the weakest). These findings, together with others concerning the type of information that people are likely to search for across the destination choice process, suggest that facilities and constraints become increasingly important in the latter stages of the choice process. Additionally, the importance of these factors tends to increase compared to other factors, given that facilities and constraints are likely to represent a higher percentage of the significant differences found between destinations in the latter stages of the decision process. Thus:

- **Hypothesis 10 →** Is **fully supported.**

  The percentage of **significant differences** between the area visited and the strongest competitor that correspond to **(i) facilities** and **(ii) structural constraints**

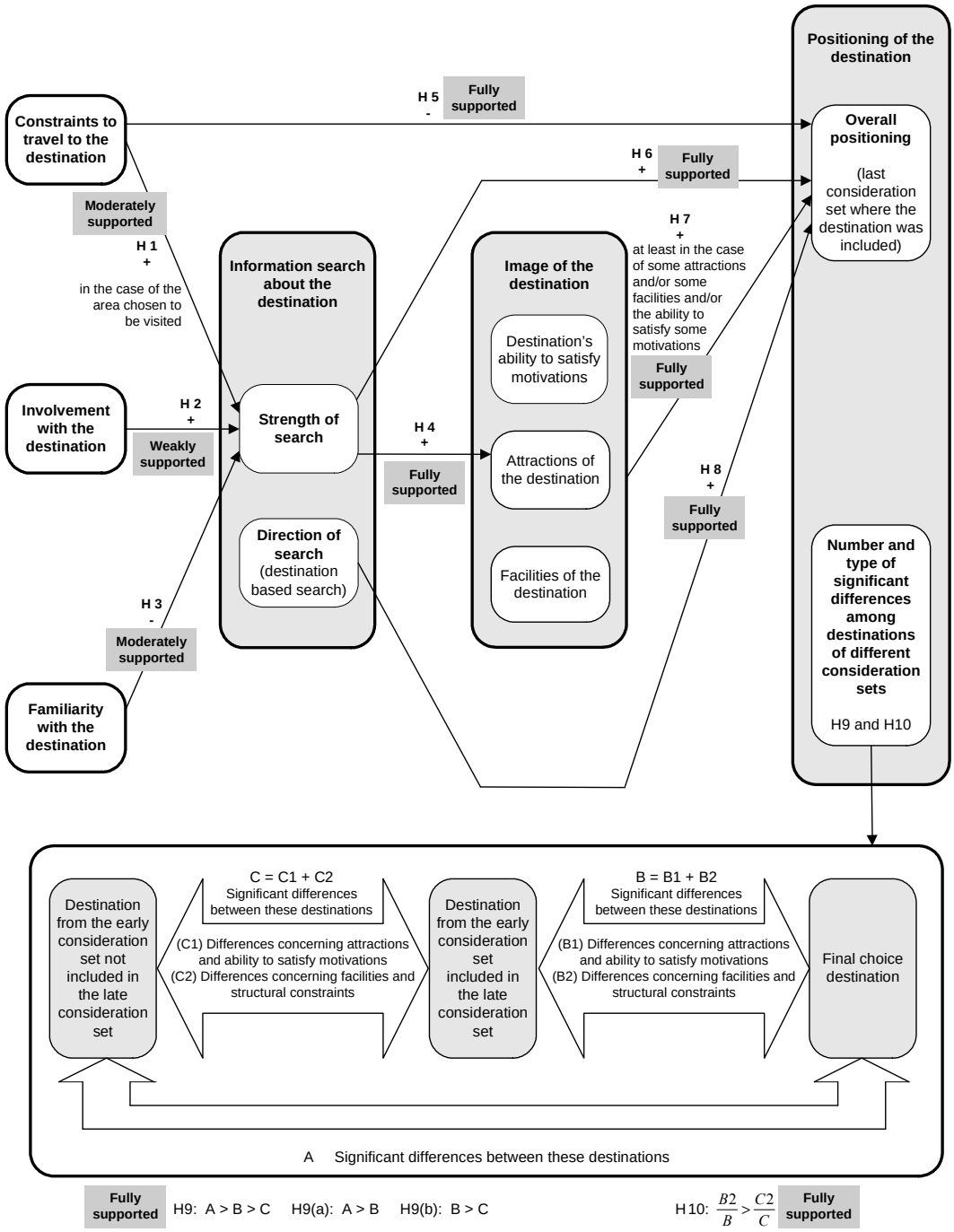
  is likely to be higher than

  the percentage of **significant differences** between the strongest and weakest competitors that correspond to **(i) facilities** and **(ii) structural constraints**.

10.6. CONCLUSIONS

The findings about hypotheses tested in the thesis are summarized in figure 10.9..

Figure 10.9. – Findings about the hypotheses underlying the proposed model



Key: **+** positive significant influence; **-** negative significant influence

The major conclusion is that all the hypotheses were supported. However, some of them were only weakly or moderately supported, whereas others were fully supported.

The hypotheses concerning the factors which influenced the strength of search were least strongly supported. The hypothesis relating to the impact of involvement on strength of search was supported only in the case of destinations in the early consideration set that were not included in the last set (weakest competitors of the destination visited), and not in relation to all destinations in the consideration sets. Similarly, the impact of familiarity on strength of search was only moderately supported, since it occurred only in the area visited and with its strongest competitors (destinations of the late consideration set not selected to be visited).

As postulated, financial constraints had a positive impact on the strength of search of the area visited, suggesting that individuals who feel more financially constrained are those who are more likely to search for information about this destination. However, no other kinds of constraints had a consistent impact on strength of search in the two samples. Therefore, the hypothesis concerning the impact of constraints on search was moderately supported.

The interest/pleasure dimension of involvement, had a positive impact on search, indicating that those who were more interested in visiting a destination or who consider they would get most pleasure from visiting it are likely to put more effort into searching for information about it. Familiarity with the destination, especially the number of previous visits to it had the opposite effect on the strength of search, with those more familiar with destinations being likely to make less effort to search for information about them.

Whereas involvement tends to have a higher impact in the first stages of the decision process, structural constraints and familiarity tend to have more influence in the latter stages. Further, whereas familiarity and constraints tend to have more impact on the decision of whether or not to search for information about a destination, involvement is

likely to have more impact on the search effort made by those who have already decided to look for information about the destinations.

All the other hypotheses were fully supported. The tests confirmed that strength of search is likely to affect the image people have about a destination. This highlights the possibility that destination image changes as a result of having obtained information about it. Results also showed that duration of travel to the area was related to the image people had of the destination, suggesting that the level of familiarity may have a significant impact on search.

Structural constraints, image of the destination - concerning its ability to satisfy motivations, as well as its attractions and facilities -, strength of search, and the direction of search all had a significant impact on the positioning of destinations during elaboration of the consideration sets. Respondents were more likely to include in the subsequent consideration set the destinations for which they had a better image (in terms of attractions, facilities and/or ability to satisfy motivations), perceived to have fewer constraints, in relation to which they did more effort to obtain information, and for which they sought information using information sources located at destination.

More significant differences were found between the area visited and the weakest competitors, than between the area visited and the strongest competitors in terms of positioning. Additionally, more significant differences were found between the area visited and the strongest competitors, than between the strongest competitors and the weakest competitors. This suggests that visitors are likely to form more homogeneous consideration sets as far as they progress through the destination choice process.

The influence of some determinants of positioning is likely to change during the destination choice process. Strength of search and use of information sources located at the destination considered to be visited are likely to increase in the latter stages of the decision process. Similarly, structural constraints and facilities are likely to have more impact in the latter stages of the decision. This suggests that constraints and facilities have more impact

in selecting a destination to visit from the late consideration set than in selecting from the early consideration set, the destinations that will be included in the late consideration set.

Structural constraints, perceptions about the destination – in terms of attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivations – and information search are important determinants of positioning of the destinations. This study showed that these and other potential determinants of positioning (e.g. familiarity with the destination) are likely to interact. Strength of information search is a moderator of positioning, given that this variable influences positioning but is also likely to be affected by other variables. Finally, revealed that the influence of several variables in the model is likely to change across the destination choice process, with some having more impact in the latter stages of the decision process.

CHAPTER 11 – CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

11.1. INTRODUCTION

The objective of this thesis was to propose a new destination choice model which would improve understanding of the process used to select tourism destinations. The intention was to create a model that explicitly incorporated the concept of positioning into the process.

This chapter presents the major conclusions of the thesis and discusses their implications. The chapter begins by reviewing the limitations found in previous research which provided the guiding principles for this study. The chapter proceeds with a summary of the empirical findings, and the efficacy of the proposed model evaluated. Implications of the conclusions are discussed, for the development and marketing of tourism destinations. Specific implications for Gerês National park and the Sintra Natural park are also suggested. The chapter ends by identifying the major limitations of the study and by providing suggestions for future research.

11.2. MAIN CONCLUSIONS

The literature on positioning analysed in chapter 2 enabled to conclude that the concept of positioning has been fully embraced in the tourism field. However, it also revealed that most of the empirical research on positioning undertaken in the field of tourism has a lot of limitations, having overlooked the influence of some determinants of positioning, the interrelationships existing among them, the destination choice process and the elaboration of consideration sets. Although most of the destination choice models reviewed in chapter 3 have the advantage of considering a broader range of determinants than that of most positioning studies, and of taking into account the elaboration of consideration sets, the majority of them still reveal some of the limitations of the empirical studies, namely: to

ignore several potential interactions among determinants of positioning and the possibility that the influence of determinants may change across the time; not explicitly incorporating the concept of positioning nor explicitly explaining the type of influence each determinant has on formation of choice sets.

After having identified some potential determinants of destinations' positioning with the help of chapters 2 and 3, a literature review was carried out in chapters 4 and 5 to analyse the type of impact these variables could have on positioning during the destination choice, and, specifically, throughout the choice sets elaboration. Especial attention was given to the potential impact of structural constraints, familiarity, involvement, information search and perceptions about destination attributes (attractions and facilities) and destinations' ability to satisfy motivations. The moderating role of the strength of information search on positioning was also an important focus of the analysis.

Literature review carried out provided guidelines to the creation of a new destination choice model that is proposed in this thesis (chapter 6) that tries to extend the contributions of previous destination choice models, mainly by: explaining the type of influence potential determinants of positioning have on several stages of the destination choice; identifying some interactions that may occur between them (here the focus was on the interactions among strength of information search and other variables); explicitly incorporating the positioning concept and the elaboration of choice sets. Although the literature review of chapters 4 and 5 was very useful as a basis to create the model proposed, this literature had some limitations, namely: (i) some relationships about variables suggested have never been tested or have only been tested in fields other than tourism; (ii) some results were restricted to studies that only took into account one destination; (iii) most of the findings did not result from real destination choice scenarios, namely because they only assessed images people had of destinations, intentions to visit destinations, positions of tourism destinations determined by the interviewer (and not by the respondent) or because they referred to hypothetical destination scenarios (also created by the interviewer). These limitations required the empirical testing of the proposed model in order to support it.

The hypotheses underlying the proposed model (created based on the literature review of chapters 2 to 5, especially of chapters 4 and 5), were tested in two different protected areas (chosen using criteria specified in chapter 7) – the Gerês National Park and the Sintra Natural Park -, in order to ensure that findings did not result from biases introduced by the characteristics of the visitors of a specific destination. The visitors of both samples were interviewed using a questionnaire created based in the literature review of chapters 2 to 5 and in an exploratory study described in chapter 8. The findings of the empirical study (chapters 9 and 10) provided empirical support for the model proposed. All the hypotheses tested were supported and the major contributions of the model are, namely: (i) to consider a wide range of important determinants of positioning (structural constraints, familiarity, involvement, information search and perceptions about some destination features) and to identify several interactions that may exist among them – with a special attention to the moderating role of information search; (iii) to explicitly explain the type of influence of each determinant in positioning; (ii) to reveal that all the determinants considered had a direct or indirect impact on positioning; (iv) to highlight changes that may occur in the impact of determinants during the choice process; (v) to explicitly incorporate the concept of positioning and the elaboration of choice sets; and (vi) to provide contributions for explaining the process of the elaboration of choice sets by identifying potential similarities and differences among destinations belonging to different choice sets. More detailed conclusions will be provided in the following sections.

11.2.1. Shortcomings of previous research concerning destination choice and determinants of the positioning of destinations across that process

The increasing number of positioning studies of tourism destinations in the last decade has made useful contributions in several areas:

- facilitated understanding of how potential visitors evaluate destinations; i.e. how they compared them, and the destination attributes to which they assign most importance;
- contributed to identifying the major strengths and weaknesses of destinations;

- provided guidelines on how to develop competitive positioning strategies, i.e. they identified features to be taken into account in the development and marketing of tourism destinations;
- facilitated evaluation of adopted promotional strategies.

Although these studies provided useful contributions they had some limitations including:

- only considering a limited range of factors that may influence the positioning of destinations and largely overlooking some dimensions of these determinants.
- not analysing the relationships that exist between the determinants of positioning;
- not explicitly addressing the process of destination choice and largely ignoring the process of elaboration of destination sets.

This last issue is also the main shortcoming of the majority of research undertaken in the tourism behaviour field. Although there is some research in areas complementary to positioning that provides insights into the potential determinants of a destination's positioning – i.e. the research undertaken in destinations' competitiveness and, specifically in destination benchmarking -, only a very small part of this research refers to real destination choice scenarios, and only a low percentage considers the process of elaboration of consideration sets.

The destination choice models reviewed in this thesis considered a relatively wide range of the determinants of positioning during the elaboration of the consideration sets. These models also recognised that the images tourists have about destinations may change across time. A majority of them also take into consideration consideration sets. However, they had major limitations which included:

- they largely ignore interactions among potential determinants of the positioning of destinations;
- they specify neither how the evolution of consideration sets takes place, nor the kind of influence that selected variables have in this process;
- most of them do not explicitly consider that the influence of some variables that act as determinants of positioning may change over time;
- the majority do not incorporate the concept of positioning.

A new destination choice model was proposed in this thesis, which integrated the major contributions of research undertaken in positioning and selection of tourism destinations and extended the contributions of previous destination choice models. The model was tested with two samples of visitors at two different destinations.

11.2.2. Conclusions about the efficacy of the model proposed in the thesis

The main intent in proposing this model was to identify:

- the potential determinants of the positioning of tourism destinations during the process of selecting a destination;
- the type of influence these determinants have in the positioning of destinations and whether this influence changed across the process of selecting destinations;
- the potential relationships that may exist among determinants of the positioning of the destinations.

The model contemplates a wide range of potential determinants of positioning, specifically: involvement with the destination; structural constraints to travel to the destination; familiarity with the destination; strength and direction of information search; motivations; attractions and facilities at the destinations. The model assumes that information search may have a moderating role in positioning destinations, being affected by several variables and also influencing the image people hold of the destination and the positioning of destinations in relation to each other. The model has the advantage of explicitly incorporating the concept of positioning, and also the process of elaboration of consideration sets.

A majority of the conclusions have been presented in previous chapters, so only a summary of the main conclusions is presented in the next sections.

11.2.2.1. The potential determinants of positioning and their influence in positioning tourism destinations across the elaboration of consideration sets

One of the most important conclusions is that **several factors considered in the model** - structural constraints, information search - both strength and direction of search -, and the image people had of the destinations – both in terms of the destinations' abilities to satisfy motivations, destinations' attractions and/or facilities – **had a significant impact on the positioning of destinations**. The image people had of destinations – especially of attractions -, the strength of search to obtain information about a destination and the use of sources located at the destination, all had a positive influence on the positioning of destinations, as hypothesised. This means that destinations about which people search for more information, for which they use information sources located at the destination, and of which they have a better image, are more likely to be included in the subsequent consideration set and, consequently, have more probability of being selected as a destination to visit. A majority of the constraints, as postulated, had a negative impact on positioning, indicating that the more constrained a person was in relation to a destination, the less probable it would be that the person would include that destination in the next consideration set, and the less probable it would be that the person could choose to visit that destination. With the exception of some of the structural constraints, all the determinants of positioning had a positive significant influence in the overall positioning of the destination. Curiously, accessibility constraints had, in some cases, a positive impact in positioning. This suggests that people are likely to accept there will be some difficulties when trying to visit some destinations, and suggests that accessibility constraints are not insurmountable barriers.

Another finding when testing the model was that visitors are likely to form more homogeneous consideration sets as they progress in the destination choice process. This suggests that visitors are likely to exclude destinations that differ, in some feature they do not appreciate, from being included in a subsequent consideration set.

11.2.2.2. Relationships among the determinants of positioning of tourism destinations

The hypotheses tests revealed **there were several relationships among the determinants of positioning of destinations**. This was especially pertinent for the strength of information search which affected positioning of destinations during the choice process. Strength of information search was also influenced by other variables such as involvement, structural constraints and the familiarity people had with the destination. In the case of destinations actually visited by respondents, financial constraints were positively related with strength of information search. This suggests that when potential visitors are very interested in visiting one destination but perceive there to be strong constraints inhibiting travel to this destination (because, for example, they found the travel or the accommodation at the destination expensive), they are likely to try to overcome this constraint by looking for more information about it. These findings corroborate the contention that information search is used as a strategy to negotiate constraints.

The results revealed that involvement – especially the interest/pleasure people feel for visiting a destination – is also likely to have a positive influence on strength of search, whereas familiarity is likely to have a negative influence on strength of search with those who are more familiar with a destination being less likely to search for information.

Interaction among the determinants of positioning was not confined to the strength of information search, because the image of a destination in terms of attractions, which is another important determinant of positioning, also is likely to be affected by other potential determinants of positioning – such as familiarity with the destination and the strength of search done to obtain information about it.

11.2.2.3. Changes in the impact of the determinants of positioning during the elaboration of consideration sets

The hypotheses tests showed that **the impact of some determinants of the positioning of destinations was likely to change during the choice process**. This was the case in

perceptions about facilities and structural constraints which had a higher impact on the latter stages of the decision process. Whereas respondents took into consideration several factors – such as the attractions – throughout the whole destination choice process, facilities and constraints had a major impact in the last stages of the elaboration of consideration sets.

The strength of search and use of information sources located at the destination considered to be visited also become more intense in the latter stages of the decision process.

Whereas level of involvement with destinations (specifically the interest/pleasure dimension) was more likely to have impact on the strength of search about the weakest competitor, other factors such as familiarity were more likely to impact the strength of obtaining information about the area visited and about destinations from the late consideration set (strongest competitors). This suggests that level of involvement is likely to have a higher influence in the initial stages of the elaboration of the choice sets, whereas familiarity tends to have more impact in the latter stages of this process.

11.2.2.4. General conclusions about the model proposed

The **model presented here** was intended to **contribute to extending research** into destination choice and the positioning of destinations. All the hypotheses of relationships within the model were empirically supported. An advantage of this model which contributes to its reliability is that the multiple hypotheses were tested with two different samples of visitors at two different geographical destinations.

11.3. MAJOR IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

11.3.1. Implications for the development and marketing of tourism destinations

This thesis has been written based on the belief that strategies for developing and promoting a tourism destination should not be designed based only on the image people have of that destinations, but rather should also take into consideration the images people have about potential alternate destinations and the process people use to compare and select destinations. Acceptance of this premise implies that strategies for developing and promoting tourism destinations should take into account the factors which determine the selection of destinations and that determine the positioning of tourism destinations during the elaboration of consideration sets.

The literature review conducted in this thesis suggested that **structural constraints** could have an important role in the selection of destinations to be visited, and this postulate was confirmed by the empirical procedures. Although visitors to both parks did not feel high structural constraints in relation either to the area visited or the competing destinations, the study revealed that respondents were likely to choose to visit destinations for which there was less perceived constraint. Thus, marketing strategies involve addressing the structural constraints felt by potential visitors.

Although the structural constraints represent potential barriers for visiting a destination, the visitors to Gerês felt as much constrained in relation to the Gerês park than in relation to the strongest competitors of Gerês. This leads to another finding of the thesis that should be taken into consideration by tourism managers, which is that **constraints** are not insurmountable barriers, but rather that **may be negotiated by potential visitors**. Although poor accessibility may make it difficult to visit certain sites, it did not prevent visitors interviewed in Gerês from visiting that destination. Both the Gerês and Sintra visitors used information search to negotiate their perceived constraints. Thus, tourism managers should not only identify the constraints felt by potential visitors, but also provide information that helps them to negotiate constraints (e.g. providing information about less expensive accommodation that exists in one destination may lead the potential travellers

who feel financially constrained in relation to the destination, to consider visiting that destination).

The **main potential constraints** people felt **to visiting Portuguese protected areas** and their competitors were financial, time and accessibility constraints. In consequence, those who manage the Portuguese protected areas, when developing or promoting tourism, should pay special attention to the factors that may create these constraints and try to decrease them.

Another finding that shows the importance of addressing constraints is that strength of search for obtaining information about the parks visited by respondents was much more influenced by constraints and familiarity respondents had with the parks, than by their level of involvement with them. Hence, although **involvement**, and more specifically the interest and pleasure people felt in visiting the destination, determined the strength of information search carried out for obtaining information about the weakest competitors of the area visited, the importance of involvement tended to decrease during this process, whereas other factors such as familiarity and constraints with the destination tended to have more influence on the strength of search carried out at the latter stages of the decision process.

The sign dimension of involvement not having an impact on strength of search could indicate that people who highly identified with a destination and those who did not strongly identify with the destination, tended to search for information about it. These findings support the suggestion of Plog (2001), who advocates that there is a group of travellers which prefers destinations they are less familiar with. Thus, tourism managers should not restrict the target market of a tourism destination to those who are more likely to identify with it, but also should develop supply and promotional programs designed to attract potential visitors who are willing to visit it, even though they do not highly identify with it.

The high impact of **familiarity** with the destination in the destination choice process also has implications. The finding that people who are more familiar with the destination tend

to spend less effort in searching for information about it, and that visits to the destinations tend to affect its image, emphasizes the importance of being able to satisfy potential visitors the first time they visit the destination. To this end, strategies to identify the needs of potential tourists, such as the development of market studies, are likely to be of great importance.

The finding that people who live further away from a destination are likely to search for more information about it, suggests that special emphasis should be put on identifying the information needs of foreign visitors and in delivering the information needed by those travellers in their own language. The results showed that people living different geographical distances from a destination had different images of it, created either by direct experience with the destination (visits made to it) or by information acquired. This suggests that people living at different geographical distances from a destination may have different expectations in relation to it so, the creation of different promotional strategies, is advocated.

Another process that has implications on destination choice is **information search** about destinations which is undertaken by potential visitors. The analyses indicated that:

- strength of search was likely to affect destination image;
- a majority of potential visitors searched for information about the area visited and its competitors;
- strength of search was likely to increase during elaboration of the consideration sets;
- visitors spent a considerable effort in searching for information about the area visited.

One of the most important conclusions of this thesis is that the **strength of information** search that people carry out has a central role in destination choice. This implies that substantial effort should be made to identify the information sources that visitors use or would like to use to obtain information about a tourism destination, and shows the importance of carefully designing promotional strategies, and the need to evaluate them.

The **information sources** that were used most widely were friends and relatives and travel guides. This is a challenge to marketers, given that these information sources are not marketer-dominated. However, these findings reinforce the need to satisfy individuals the first time they visit a destination and the need to have a tourism product good enough to be positively described in travel guides. The importance of sources located at the destination increased during the elaboration of consideration sets indicating that these sources play a key role at the final levels of the decision process. Thus, tourism organizations should draw special attention to the information that is directly provided by these sources since it can be controlled by marketers.

As far as the **internet** is concerned, the empirical study revealed that:

- a considerable proportion of visitors searched for information about destinations through the internet;
- the visitors who searched for information about the internet considered it was important for obtaining information about destinations;
- visitors who used the internet for obtaining information about destinations spent more effort on searching for information about them in terms of time spent searching for information, number of information sources consulted, and number of destination attributes about which information was sought.

Thus, the internet plays an important role in the process of destination choice. The study also revealed that it was usually used to obtain information about transportation companies and information sources located at the area visited – accommodation, attractions and public tourism organization/tourism offices. Given these results, tourism organisations should make a great effort to provide information about these features on the internet.

Given that the internet was the main source for obtaining information about transportation companies and information sources located at the destinations, the provision of information through the internet may be a means of overcoming the geographical barriers associated with high distances that may exist, between the residence of potential visitors and the destination about which they want to obtain information.

This thesis provides guidelines about the kind of tourism information that should be provided by marketers. The **information** that most **visitors searched** for was related to:

- cultural attractions – architecture/buildings, historic sites;
- natural attractions – flora and fauna, rivers and lakes;
- climate;
- way to get to a destination;
- type and price of accommodation available at a destination.

Marketers should ensure that this kind of information is provided to potential visitors. However, the importance of these features varied. The visitors to Gerês tended to search for more information about natural attractions, whereas visitors to Sintra tended to search for more information about cultural attractions.

Visitors are likely to form **increasingly homogeneous consideration sets**, excluding visiting destinations that were in the early consideration sets but differ from those included in the next sets on some features. The major competitors of a destination were destinations which were most similar to it. This emphasizes the need to develop strategies that differentiate an area from its competitors.

Those engaged in tourism development should make a special effort to differentiate a destination from competitors in terms of **tourism attractions**, given that tourism attractions are the primary reason why travellers choose to visit a destination, and that the image visitors have about specific attractions is likely to have more impact on destination choice than other features such as: the image visitors have about facilities and the destination's ability to satisfy motivations. Although **facilities** did not have such a higher influence on destination choice as attractions, their impact is likely to increase during the elaboration of the consideration sets. Consequently, those engaged in tourism development and marketing should put special focus on identifying the strongest competitors to the area visited and attempt to develop a strategy specifically tailored to differentiating the destination from its strongest competitors in terms of facilities.

Tourism **motivations** played an important role in the destination choice. Some motivations - "escape and relaxation" and "novelty" - seemed to be especially important in the

elaboration of the consideration sets, given that the destinations included in subsequent sets were likely to have more ability to satisfy those motivations. Although some of these motivations were likely to be more important in selecting destinations from the early consideration set to be included in the late consideration set, some (e.g. "escape and relaxation" in the case of the Gerês sample) were also shown to be important in choosing a destination to be visited from the late consideration set. Given the important role motivations may have in the elaboration of the consideration sets, market research studies designed to identify the motivations of potential visitors of the destinations are recommended.

Implications for those engaged in the development and marketing of tourism are:

- the destination **choice and the positioning of the destinations across the elaboration of consideration sets**, are likely to be **influenced by** a much **wider range of factors** than the set of factors usually considered in destination choice models and, especially, in the empirical studies of destination positioning;
  - the empirical results in this thesis showed that the selection of destinations and the positioning of tourism destinations are highly influenced by four factors that may be, either directly or indirectly, influenced by those engaged in tourism promotion and development:
    - the constraints people feel when considering travel to tourism destinations;
    - the image people have of tourism destinations – in terms of attractions, facilities and ability to satisfy motivation;
    - the strength of information search carried out to obtain information about tourism destinations;
    - the direction of information search undertaken to obtain information about tourism destinations, assessed in terms of the information sources consulted;
- the **determinants of positioning and of the selection of destinations** are likely to **affect each other**;
- the **impact of the determinants of positioning and of selection of destinations** is likely to **change during the elaboration of consideration sets**, with

consequences for tourism development and promotion (e.g. given that the facilities are likely to have a higher impact in the latter stages of the elaboration of consideration sets, it is more important in terms of facilities to try to differentiate destinations from their strongest competitors than from their weakest competitors).

The empirical study was undertaken by interviewing people who were already visiting the two protected areas where the study was undertaken. As a consequence, this study was useful in identifying the potentialities and weaknesses of these areas, and to identify reasons why respondents decided to visit these areas instead of others. This kind of **empirical positioning studies** is recommended in order to identify the major weaknesses and potentialities of destinations in relation to other destinations, and to identify destination features that are likely to be most effective in promoting the destination and the features of the destination that should be changed. To identify reasons why people do not visit a specific destination, these kind of positioning studies should be undertaken outside the destination and people who decided not to visit it should be interviewed.

After identifying some general implications of the study for the development and marketing of tourism, the next section draws special attention to the implications of the study for the Gerês and Sintra parks.

11.3.2. Implications for the Peneda-Gerês national park and for the Sintra-Cascais natural park

This thesis has identified some of the **most important competitors** of the two areas under study. The empirical study revealed that areas in the neighbourhood of the Gerês park and Portuguese regions such as Serra da Estrela, Trás-os-Montes, Alentejo, Algarve and Açores are potential competitors of the Gerês Park. At Sintra, it was found that the main competitors also were areas in the neighbourhood of the park, specific towns well known for their cultural heritage – Porto, Coimbra and Évora -, Fátima and the Algarve. Among

foreign countries, the major competitor of the two parks was Spain. In the case of the Sintra Park, France, Italy and Greece also emerged as competitors.

The major competing destinations to both parks are Portuguese beach destinations such as the Algarve, and neighbouring areas of the parks. However, the Gerês Park competitors also correspond to areas characterised by an important natural heritage and, in some cases, by rural scenery, whereas the major competitors of the Sintra park are areas of outstanding cultural heritage. When designing strategies for the development and promotion of tourism in the two parks, it is recommended that those potential competitors are taken into account.

The empirical findings provide some **indications about the way the two parks could enhance their positioning in relation to competitors**. At the Gerês park, one of the major limitations in relation to the alternate destinations considered by respondents was the facilities for providing information. Research should be undertaken to better understand what are the specific problems of the park in this area so strategies may be developed to enhance the information facilities, either by creating new facilities for providing information or by enhancing existing ones (e.g. by keeping the information facilities open for a longer period of time). Respondents reported having as much accessibility constraints to get to the Gerês park than when travelling to strongest competing destinations of Gerês. Research should be carried out to identify whether accessibility could be enhanced without damaging the natural heritage of the Gerês park.

One of the major weaknesses of the Sintra Natural park in relation to competitors is accommodation. Strategies for enhancing the accommodation supply near the Park and for enhancing the promotion of these accommodations should be implemented.

The Gerês park **has a strong competitive position** in relation to its competitors in terms of peacefulness and natural attractions. The Sintra park has a competitive advantage in relation to competitors in terms of both natural and cultural attributes, although this advantage is not as strong as the advantage that Gerês has in relation to its competitors. Respondents consistently reported they were less financially constrained to travel to Gerês and Sintra than to their competitors, meaning that these parks have a competitive

advantage in relation to the competitors in terms of price, i.e. the price of travel to the park. These features of the two parks, that correspond to competitive advantages in relation to competing destinations, are those that should be used in promotion of the parks.

The image people had about the destinations are likely to change across the time. Consequently, it is recommended that the two protected areas carry out positioning studies in the future to monitor their competitive position.

11.4. LIMITATIONS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

As a result of time and financial constraints, the study was confined to a period of two and a half months during the summer season, and to a restricted number of respondents. The requirement to collect information about several products – several destinations in this case – made it difficult to obtain a high number of respondents. This challenge was accentuated by testing the multiple hypotheses on samples in two different geographical areas. The size of the sample was defined by the confidence levels needed in the statistical analyses, a limitation was having too few people highly familiar with the Sintra park in the Sintra sample.

Data were not available about all visitors to the parks under study. The data available related only to guests at hotel establishments and visitors to some attractions (e.g. museums) and were only available by municipality. This situation made it difficult to identify the population of the study – people who visit the Gerês and Sintra parks between the 15th of June and the end of August. As a consequence, it was difficult to define a representative sample.

Respondents had to be interviewed when they were already on site, without the possibility of them having avoided contact with the destination and this probably influenced the results.

The empirical study was confined to only two protected areas. Although it had the advantage of being conducted in two areas, enabling the hypotheses to be tested with two different samples, it would be desirable to replicate the study at other destinations other than protected areas and in destinations outside Portugal. This replication would enable proposed hypotheses to be tested in a wide variety of settings and would contribute to confirming consistency of the results obtained in this thesis.

The analyses undertaken in the thesis were restricted to some determinants of the positioning of destinations and to some of the relationships that may exist among these determinants. Other interactions were ignored that may exist among determinants considered in the study or between these determinants and others not considered.

The study considered the elaboration of the consideration sets and of the influence that selected factors had in this process. However, some features of the elaboration of the consideration sets were largely overlooked – e.g. the influence that familiarity and constraints felt in relation to the area visited had in the size and composition of some consideration sets (e.g. in the size and composition of the early consideration set).

11.5. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The elaboration of the consideration sets has a central role in the model proposed in the scope of this thesis. The comparison of visitors who considered 2 or more alternate destinations with visitors who considered less than 2 alternate destinations suggested that the geographical distance people live from destinations may influence the size of the consideration sets. Future research could identify factors that influence the size of consideration sets, and other factors that influence their composition.

Information search was shown to have an impact as a moderator in the positioning of destinations. However, in this thesis, only the determinants of strength of search were examined. The research should be expanded to identify determinants of the direction of

search, that is the factors that determine the type of information sources visitors consult and the type of information for which they search.

Other important findings of this thesis refer to the change of the impact of some factors during the elaboration of consideration sets. It was observed that facilities and structural constraints were likely to have more impact in the latter stages of this process, which corroborates the results of other studies (e.g. Um and Crompton, 1992). However, although the study of Um and Crompton (1992) suggested that facilitators were likely to have more impact in initial stages of the elaboration of consideration sets, in this thesis it was found that motivations and attractions had an impact throughout this process, and it was not detected that their impact was higher in the first stages. Consequently, future research should be undertaken in order to obtain more insights into potential differences on the impact of motivations and attractions during the formation of consideration sets.

The strength and direction of search carried out for the area visited were shown to influence the strength and direction of search undertaken for obtaining information about alternate destinations considered by visitors. It would be useful to confirm whether these and other strategies carried out in relation to the area visited were likely to impact the strategies adopted in relation to competitors.

The study was confined to two protected areas located in Portugal. It would be useful to test the model proposed in other areas, in order to confirm the consistency of the findings and to confirm that the model could be applied in other geographical areas.

The study undertaken in this thesis was carried out with people who were visiting two destinations and was useful for identifying the main competitors of the destinations and the reasons why people chose to visit those destinations rather than others. However, it would be useful to carry out this kind of study with respondents who were not visiting a destination to find the reasons underlying this decision and to suggest strategies to make the destination more appealing to visitors.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 – Questionnaires administered in the exploratory study

These questionnaires were available in English and Portuguese

FIRST SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED AT THE GERÊS PARK

TO FIND OUT QUALIFIED RESPONDENTS

1. Protected area that the respondent is visiting: Peneda-Gerês Park

2. What is the main **purpose of your visit** to Gerês Park? *(Please circle only <u>one</u> of the following options.)*

A - Leisure, recreation and/or holiday (may include visiting friends and relatives if this is not the main purpose of the trip)
B - Visiting friends and relatives
C - Business and professional
D - Health treatment
E - Religion and pilgrimages

3. On this trip, how many **nights** will you stay in a **place that is different from your usual place of residence**? _____ nights

3a. How many of these **nights** will be spent in the **area of the Gerês Park**? ____ nights

4. Month in which the questionnaire is being administered: *(Please, circle <u>one</u> of the following options.)*

A - January	C - March	E - May	G – July	I - September	L - November
B - February	D - April	F – June	H - August	J - October	M - December

ELABORATION OF CONSIDERATION SETS

5. Before visiting the Gerês Park, you probably spent some time thinking about where to go. Please list all the **other destinations that you thought about going to**, for the purpose of a leisure, recreation and/or holiday trip. Please try to remember and list <u>as much as you can</u> in the space below[1]. [2]

1. _____ 2. _____
3. _____ 4. _____
5. _____ 6. _____
7. _____ 8. _____
9. _____ 10. _____

6. If you had not visited the Gerês Park, which one of the above **destinations** mentioned in question 5 would you **more likely had visited**? __

7. If you had not visited the Gerês Park, which one of the above **destinations** listed in question 5 would you **less likely had visited**? __

[1] About half of the questionnaires included the following question: "If you had not visited the Gerês Park, what destinations would you have considered visiting? Please list all the **other destinations that you would have considered visiting** for the purpose of a leisure, recreation and/or holiday trip. Please try to remember and list <u>as much as you can</u> in the space below."

[2] <u>In about half of the questionnaires these lines were replaced by a blank space.</u>

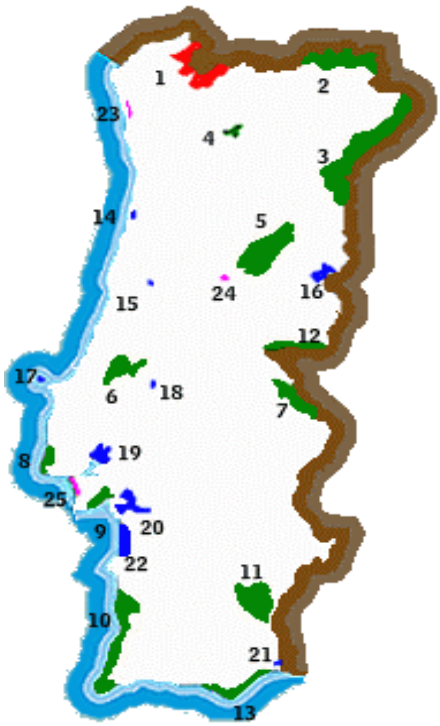
QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED AT UNIVERSITIES

1. Did you visit any of the protected areas of **figure 1 in the last 12 months?** *(Please circle only one of the following options.)*

A - Yes B – No

1A. If you did, please indicate one of the areas that you visited for leisure, recreation and/or holiday purposes: _____

Figure 1 - Portuguese Protected Areas



Parques Nacionais:

1 – Peneda-Gerês

Parques Naturais:

2 – Montesinho

3 – Douro Internacional

4 – Alvão

5 – Serra da Estrela

6 – Serras de Aire e Candeeiros

7 – Serra de S. Mamede

8 – Sintra-Cascais

9 – Arrábida

10 – SW Alentejano e Costa Vicentina

11 – Vale do Guadiana

12 – Tejo Internacional

13 – Ria Formosa

Reservas Naturais:

14 – Dunas de S. Jacinto

15 – Paul de Arzila

16 – Serra da Malcata

17 – Berlengas

18 – Paul de Boquilobo

19 – Estuário do Tejo

20 – Estuário do Sado

21 – Sapal de Castro Marim e Vila Real de Sto. António

22 – Lagoa de Sto. André e de Sancha

Paisagens Protegidas:

23 – Litoral de Esposende

24 – Serra do Açor

25 – Arriba Fóssil da Costa da Caparica

*In case you had visited the **destination indicated in question 1A** more than once in the last twelve months, in order to answer the following questions consider only one of those visits.*

2. What was the main **purpose of your visit** to the ***destination listed in question 1A***? *(Please circle only one of the following options.)*

A - Leisure, recreation and/or holiday (may include visiting friends and relatives if this is not the main purpose of the trip)
B - Visiting friends and relatives
C - Business and professional
D - Health treatment
E - Religion and pilgrimages

3. On the trip you made to visit the ***destination listed in question 1A*** how many **nights** you stayed in a **place that is different from your usual place of residence**? ___ nights

3a. How many of these **nights** had been spent in the **area of** the ***destination listed in question 1A***? ____ nights

4. In which **month** did your **visit to** the ***destination listed in question 1A*** took place? *(Please, circle <u>one</u> of the following options.)*

A - January	C - March	E - May	G – July	I - September	L - November
B - February	D - April	F – June	H - August	J - October	M - December

If your answers to questions 1 and 2 were "A" and your answer to question 3 was "one" or "more than one night", please continue filling the questionnaire.
If your answers to questions 1 to 3 were different from those previously mentioned, please return the questionnaire with only the answers to the first four questions. Thank you!

ELABORATION OF CONSIDERATION SETS

5. If you had not visited the ***destination listed in question 1A***, what destinations would you have considered visiting? Please list all the **other destinations that you would have considered visiting** for the purpose of a leisure, recreation and/or holiday trip. Please try to remember and list <u>as much as you can</u> in the space below[3].[4]

1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____ 4. _____

5. _____ 6. _____

7. _____ 8. _____

9. _____ 10. _____

6. If you had not visited the ***destination listed in question 1A***, which one of the above **destinations** mentioned in question 5 would you **more likely had visited**? __

7. If you had not visited the ***destination listed in question 1A***, which one of the above **destinations** listed in question 5 would you **less likely had visited**? __

[3] About half of the questionnaires included the following question: "Before visiting the *destination listed in question 1A*, you probably spent some time thinking about where to go. Please list all the **other destinations that you thought about going to**, for the purpose of a leisure, recreation and/or holiday trip. Please try to remember and list <u>as much as you can</u> in the space below."
[4] In about half of the questionnaires these lines were replaced by a blank space.

SECOND SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

Only questionnaires administered on Gerês Park are presented because those administered at universities are similar[5]

[5] The only difference is that when the visitors of Gerês are asked to answer questions about the Gerês park, the students are asked questions about the protected area that they told they had visited in the last 12 months (that identified in question 1A).

QUESTIONNAIRE A - MOTIVATIONS

MOTIVATIONS

8. What were the main **benefits** that you received from visiting the Gerês Park? Please list them: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you think of any more benefits you got? Please list them: _____

_____

9. What do you think are the main benefits that you would have obtained if you had visited the _____ *(destination listed in question 6)*? Please list them: _____

_____:_____

_____

_____

Can you think of any more benefits you would have obtained? Please list them: _____

_____

10. What do you think are the main benefits that you would have obtained if you had visited the _____ *(destination listed in question 7)*? Please list them: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you think of any more benefits you would have obtained? Please list them: _____

_____

11. Please consider the following possible **benefits that people may obtain from visiting tourism destinations** *(show the list of motivations)* and please indicate <u>three</u> which you obtained from visiting the Gerês Park that you have not already mentioned in question 8.

List of motivations shown to respondents

A – have an experience that involves thrills, taking risks
B - learn about things, expand my knowledge
C – experience peace and calm, be away from crowds
D – opportunity to behave like when I was younger
E - lead other people and teach my skills to others
F – experience and explore new things, change to a different environment
G – learn more about myself
H - interact with local people
I - view the scenery, be close to nature
J – avoid everyday responsibilities, relax mentally
K – have an experience that involves surprise
L - use equipment and talk about it
M - meet new people
N - visit historical sites, museums, or attend cultural events
O - do something creative
P – be free to make my own choices, control things
Q - reflect on past memories and think about good times I have had
R – rest
S - see and experience a particular place
T - be with my friends, develop close friendships
U - develop my physical abilities, keep in shape physically
V – boredom alleviation
X - bring the family close together, enhance family relationships
Z - gain others' respect, have others know that I have been here

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

12. Please consider the following possible **benefits that people may obtain from visiting tourism destinations** *(show the list of motivations)* and please indicate <u>three</u> which you would have obtained if you had visited _____ *(destination listed in question 6)* that you have not already mentioned in question 9.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

13. Please consider the following possible **benefits that people may obtain from visiting tourism destinations** *(show the list of motivations)* and please indicate <u>three</u> which you would have obtained if you had visited _____ *(destination listed in question 7)* that you have not already mentioned in question 10.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

QUESTIONNAIRE B – ATTRACTIONS AND FACILITIES

ATTRACTIONS

8. In your opinion, what are the **most attractive features** of the Gerês Park **for tourists** who visit it? Please list them here: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you try to think on more attractive features? Please list them here: _____

_____

9. In your opinion, what are the **most attractive features** of _____ *(destination listed in question 6)* **for tourists** who visit it? Please list them here: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you try to think on more attractive features? Please list them here: _____

_____

10. In your opinion, what are the **most attractive features** of _____ *(destination listed in question 7)* **for tourists** who visit it? Please list them here: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you try to think on more attractive features? Please list them here: _____

_____

11. Please consider the following list of **features of tourism destinations** *(show the list of attractions)*. Please write <u>three</u> features that correspond to **positive features of the Gerês Park** that you have not already mentioned in question 8.

List of attractions shown to respondents

A - Climate
B - Cultural events
C - Familiar atmosphere
D - Museums
E - Walking trails
F - Scenery
G - Architecture/buildings
H - Customs and culture
I - Hospitality of local people
J - Exotic atmosphere
L - Historic sites
M - Opportunities for experiencing new and different lifestyle
N - Flora and fauna
O - Local cuisine (gastronomy)
P – Rivers and lakes
Q - Unpolluted environment
R - Shopping facilities
S - Beaches
T - Nightlife and entertainment

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

12. Please consider the following list of **features of tourism destinations** *(show the list of attractions)*. Please write <u>three</u> features that correspond to **positive features of the** _____ *(destination listed in question 6)* that you have not already mentioned in question 9.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

13. Please consider the following list of **features of tourism destinations** *(show the list of attractions)*. Please write <u>three</u> features that correspond to **positive features of the** _____ *(destination listed in question 7)* that you have not already mentioned in question 10.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

FACILITIES THAT SUPPORT TOURISM

14. Now, we want you to consider another list which identifies facilities that may support tourism *(show the list of facilities)*. In the spaces at the end of this list, please write those which you consider to be the **three most positive and the three most negative facilities** of the **Gerês Park**.

List of facilities shown to respondents

A - Facilities for providing information
B - Quality of accommodations
C - Car parking
D - Food outlets
E - Toilets
F - Local public transportation services
G - Camping areas
H - Quality of service by staff
I - Safety
J - Signage
L - Availability of accommodations
M - Cooking facilities
N - Cleanliness
O – The destination's accessibility
P - Children's facilities

Three most positive features *Three most negative features*

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____ 1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

15. Consider the same list which identifies facilities that may support tourism *(show the list of facilities)*. In the spaces at the end of this list, please write those which you consider the **three most positive and the three most negative facilities** of _____ *(destination listed in question 6)*.

Three most positive features *Three most negative features*

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____ 1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

16. Consider the same list which identifies facilities that may support tourism *(show the list of facilities)*. In the spaces at the end of this list, please write those which you consider the **three most positive and the three most negative facilities** of _____ *(destination listed in question 7)*.

Three most positive features *Three most negative features*

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____ 1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

QUESTIONNAIRE C – CONSTRAINTS AND INFORMATION SOURCES

CONSTRAINTS

8. What were the main **obstacles** you had to consider and overcome when planning your **visit to the Gerês Park**? Please list them: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you think of any more obstacles? Please list them: _____

_____

9. If you had decided to visit the _____ *(destination listed in question 6)* what were the main **obstacles you had to consider**? Please list them here: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you try to think on more obstacles? Please list them: _____

_____

10. If you had decided to visit the _____ *(destination listed in question 7)* what were the main **obstacles you had to consider**? Please list them here: _____

_____

_____

_____

Can you try to think on more obstacles? Please list them: _____

_____

11. Please consider the following list of **obstacles** that can be found when someone considers **visiting a destination** *(show the list of constraints)*. Please indicate three that you considered to be the most critical obstacles to visiting the Gerês Park that you did not mention in question 8.

List of constraints shown to respondents

A - Travel to this destination was expensive

B - This destination is too far away from where you live

C - Too much planning involved

D - You didn't have enough money

E - Concern about health

F –Difficult to find enough time to go

G – The weather there was too cold

H - Too much hassle buying or renting equipment

I - Fear of traveling so far

J - Equipment needed is too expensive

L - Too busy

M - The attractions at this destination are expensive

N - Difficulties in finding accommodations available

O - Fear of crime there

P - This destination was too crowded

Q - The accommodations on site are expensive

R - It's not easy to get there

S – The weather there was too hot

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

12. Please consider the following list of **obstacles** that can be found when someone considers **visiting a destination** *(show the list of constraints)*. Please indicate three that you considered to be the most critical obstacles to visiting _____ *(destination listed in question 6)* that you did not mention in question 9.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

13. Please consider the following list of **obstacles** that can be found when someone considers **visiting a destination** *(show the list of constraints)*. Please indicate three that you considered to be the most critical obstacles to visiting _____ *(destination listed in question 7)* that you did not mention in question 10.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

INFORMATION SOURCES

Think back to the first time you considered taking this trip. In the time since then you probably consulted several **information sources** in order to **acquire information about Gerês Park and other possible destinations**.

14. Please list all the sources you consulted when acquiring information about the Gerês Park . _____

_____

Can you think of any more information sources you consulted? Please list them: _____

_____

15. Please list all the sources you consulted when acquiring information about _____ *(destination listed in question 6)*. _____

_____

Can you think of any more information sources you consulted? Please list them: _____

_____

16. Please list all the sources you consulted when acquiring information about _____ *(destination listed in question 7)*. _____

_____

Can you think of any more information sources you consulted? Please list them: _____

_____

17. Please consider the following **information sources** *(show the list of information sources)* and, indicate, the three most important which you consulted to acquire information about the Gerês Park that you did not mention in question 14.

List of information sources shown to respondents
A - Friends
B - Travel agents
C - Travel guides
D - Companies that organize activities or manage an attraction in this area
E - TV/radio ads
F - Accommodations on site
G - Transportation companies
H - Newspaper/ magazine advertisements
I - Relatives
J - Brochures
L - Associations
M - Books, newspaper/magazine articles
N - Public tourism organizations / tourism offices
O - Consumer reports

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

18. Please consider the following **information sources** *(show the list of information sources)* and, indicate, the three most important which you consulted to acquire information about _____ *(destination listed in question 6)* that you did not mention in question 15.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

19. Please consider the following **information sources** *(show the list of information sources)* and, indicate, the three most important which you consulted to acquire information about _____ *(destination listed in question 7)* that you did not mention in question 16.

1. ____ 2. ____ 3. ____

20. Did you **obtain any information** about these destinations **through the internet**?

A - Yes B - No

If yes, please answer questions 20A, 20B and 20C.

20A. Please indicate the **level of importance of the information** you **obtained through the internet**. *(Please circle the option that best reflects your opinion).*

not important	*below average importance*	*average importance*	*above average importance*	*very important*
1	2	3	4	5

20B. Consider the list of information sources presented in questions 17 to 19. For which of these did you obtain **information through the internet**? *(Please write the letters corresponding to those information sources.)* _____

20C. Indicate other **information sources** which you **used on the internet** and that are not in the list presented in questions 17 to 19. Please list them: _____

_____

_____

THIRD SECTION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRES

Only questionnaires administered on Gerês Park are presented because those administered at universities are similar

PERSONAL DATA

Finally, for statistical purposes, could you please give us information about yourself?

1. Age: _____ years old

2. Gender: *(Please circle <u>one</u> of the following options.)* A - male B – female

3. Country of residence: *(Please circle <u>one</u> of the following options.)*

A - Portugal. Please indicate the municipality where you live: _____

B - Other country. Please state _____

4. In school, what is the **highest grade you have completed**? *(Please circle <u>one</u> of the following options.)*

A - Elementary School

B - Junior High School

C - High School

D – College

E - Graduate School

Appendix 2 – Questionnaires administered in the final empirical study

English version

Portuguese version

French version

Administration of the questionnaire:

Specific site: _____

Date:___/___/___*(day/ month/year)*

TO IDENTIFY QUALIFIED RESPONDENTS

1. What is the **main purpose of your visit** to Peneda-Gerês Park?

A - Leisure, recreation and/or holiday (may include visiting friends and relatives if this is not the main purpose of the trip)
B - Visiting friends and relatives
C - Business and professional
D - Health treatment
E - Religion and pilgrimages

2. On this trip away from home, how many **nights** will you stay in a **place that is different from your usual place of residence**? _____ nights

2a. How many of these **nights** will be spent in the **area of Peneda-Gerês Park**?
(Show a map of the Park to the respondents) _____ nights

If the answer to question 1 was "A" and the answer to question 2 was "one" or "more than one night", the respondent should continue answering the questionnaire. For all other respondents, the interviewer must thank them for their collaboration and explain that they will not be requested to answer any other questions.

ELABORATION OF CONSIDERATION SETS

3. Before visiting Peneda-Gerês Park, you probably spent some time thinking about where to go. Please list all the **other destinations that you thought about going to**, for the purpose of a leisure, recreation and/or holiday trip, but that you did not visit. Please try to remember and mention as many of them as you can.

1. _____ 2. _____
3. _____ 4. _____
5. _____ 6. _____
7. _____ 8. _____
9. _____ 10. _____

4. If you had not visited Peneda-Gerês Park, which one of the **destinations** that you mentioned previously *(destinations listed in question 3)* would you **most likely have visited**? _____

5. If you had not visited Peneda-Gerês Park, which one of the **destinations** that you mentioned previously *(destinations listed in question 3)* would you **have been least likely to visit**? _____

QUESTIONS ABOUT THE GERÊS NATIONAL PARK, ITS STRONGEST AND ITS WEAKEST COMPETITORS

Now, we would like to ask you some questions about the destination that you are visiting and the destinations that you identified in the two last questions - those you were most likely and least likely to visit if you had not come to this place.

6. Have you ever visited these three destinations before?

(When respondents mention that they had already visited a destination before, the interviewer has to ask the following question) **How many times** you already visited it before and **how much time has passed since the last time you visited** it?

Peneda-Gerês Park ☐ I have never visited it. ☐ I have visited it ___ times before. My last visit took place ___ years ago.

Destination of question 4 ☐ I have never visited it. ☐ I have visited it ___ times before. My last visit took place ___ years ago.

Destination of question 5 ☐ I have never visited it. ☐ I have visited it ___ times before. My last visit took place ___ years ago.

7. How long does it take to **travel from your home to** each of **the three destinations**?

Peneda-Gerês Park:____ hours Destination of question 4:____ hours Destination of question 5:____ hours

8. We would like to know which of these **information sources** you consulted to obtain information about these three destinations since you first thought about going on a trip at this time. *(show the list of the information sources presented in the following table to respondents)*

(When a source is mentioned by the respondent, the interviewer has to ask the following question) How much time you spent in acquiring information about the destination from this source? *(time reported must be recorded by the interviewer in terms of hours)*

	Peneda-Gerês National Park	***Destination of question 4***	***Destination of question 5***
Brochures	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Friends and relatives	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Travel guides	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Accommodations located in this destination	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Television programs	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Books/newspaper and magazine articles	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Maps	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Public tourism organizations and tourism offices	_____ hours	_____ hours	_____ hours
Other. Please state: _____ _____	_____ hours _____ hours	_____ hours _____ hours	_____ hours _____ hours

9. Did you **use the internet** to contact any of the information sources mentioned in the last question?

☐ Yes ☐ No *(If the respondent answered " no", do not ask questions 10 and 11)*

10. Which of these sources did you contact using the internet? *(show the list of the information sources to respondents again)* _____

11. Please indicate the **level of importance of the internet in obtaining information**. Please use the following scale to answer the question. *(show the following scale to respondents and circle the number that reflects the opinion of the respondent)*

not important	*slightly important*	*somewhat important*	*very important*	*extremely important*
1	2	3	4	5

12. On which of the following **items** did you **seek information about each destination**? *(show the list of the attributes presented in the following table to respondents). (put a cross in the spaces that correspond to items about which respondents searched information)*

	Peneda-Gerês National Park	***Destination of question 4***	***Destination of question 5***
Price of the accommodations at the destination			
Scenery			
Customs and culture			
Type of accommodations available at the destination			
Flora and the fauna			
Hospitality of local people			
Beaches			
Historic sites			
Walking trails			
Safety			
Architecture and buildings			
Price of travel to the destination			
Local cuisine (gastronomy)			
The way to get to the destination			
Rivers and lakes			
Restaurants			
Camping areas			
Climate			
Level of pollution			
Transportation available to get to the destination			
Other. Please state: _____ _____	_____ _____	_____ _____	_____ _____

The objective of the following questions is to gain insight into the features that made the destinations attractive to you when you were considering visiting them. Feel free to respond "don't know" when you have no opinion on that subject. However, we ask you to avoid selecting this option as much as possible, because your impression of these destinations is the most important information we are seeking from this study.

13. How important were the **following features in making the destination attractive** to you when you were considering visiting the destination? Please use the following scale to answer the question.

not important	*slightly important*	*somewhat important*	*very important*	*extremely important*
1	2	3	4	5

(For each destination circle, in each line, the number that best reflects your opinion).

	Peneda-Gerês National Park	***Destination of question 4***	***Destination of question 5***
Scenery	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Customs and culture	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Accommodations	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Flora and the fauna	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to rest	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Hospitality of local people	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to learn about things, expand my knowledge	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Beaches	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Historic sites	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to meet new people	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Walking trails	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Safety	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Opportunities for viewing the scenery, being close to nature	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Architecture and buildings	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Contact with local people	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Local cuisine (gastronomy)	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Facilities for providing information	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to avoid everyday responsibilities, relax mentally	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Rivers and lakes	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Restaurants	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to see a particular place	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Camping areas	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to experience peace and calm, being away from crowds	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to experience and explore new things, change to a different environment	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Desire to be with my friends, develop close friendships	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Climate	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Lack of crowds	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Unpolluted environment	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K

14. How significant were the following features in **making it difficult** for you **to travel to the three places**? Please use the following scale to answer the question.

did not make it difficult	*made it slightly difficult*	*made it somewhat difficult*	*made it very difficult*	*made it extremely difficult*
1	2	3	4	5

(For each destination circle, in each line, the number that best reflects your opinion).

	Peneda-Gerês National Park	***Destination of question 4***	***Destination of question 5***
The accommodations at the destination were expensive	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
You were too busy	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
The transportation infrastructure to get to the destination was not good	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
Travel to the destination was expensive	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
You had difficulty in finding information about how to get to the destination	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
The destination was too far away from where you live	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
You had more important things to do	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
You did not have enough money	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
It was not easy to get there	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K
You had difficulty in finding enough time to come to the destination	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K	1 2 3 4 5 D/K

15. Please indicate the extent to which you **agree with the following statements**. Please indicate your level of agreement by using the following scale.

strongly disagree	*disagree*	*neither agree nor disagree*	*agree*	*strongly agree*
1	2	3	4	5

(For each destination circle, in each line, the number that best reflects your opinion).

	Peneda-Gerês National Park	***Destination of question 4***	***Destination of question 5***
You attach great importance to a trip to this kind of destination	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
The trip to this kind of destination is a big present to yourself	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
You can tell a lot about people by whether or not they go to places like this destination	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
You can get a great deal of pleasure from a trip to this kind of destination	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Visiting this kind of destination gives you a glimpse of the type of person you are	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
This kind of destination interests you a lot	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
For you, a visit to this kind of destination is a real pleasure	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Choosing to visit this kind of destination tells a lot about you	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

PERSONAL DATA

Finally, for statistical purposes, would you please give us the following information about yourself?

16.Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

17.Country of residence ☐ Portugal. Please indicate the municipality where you live: _____

☐ Other country. Please identify it _____

18. Size of travel group: ___ persons. Presence of people under 15 year old: ☐ Yes ☐ No

19. What **modes of transport** did you use to get to the Peneda-Gerês Park? *(Show a list of the modes of transport to the respondents)* You can indicate more than one mode of transport.

☐ Plane ☐ Car ☐ Bus ☐ Train ☐ Cab ☐ Other. State: _____

20. What **type of accommodation** will you use for more night stays during this trip? *(show a list of the different types of accommodation to the respondents)* Indicate only one type of accommodation.

☐ Hotels ☐ Boarding houses ☐ Camping sites ☐ Other. State: _____

21. What are the main **activities** in which you engaged or plan to engage in at the place you are visiting now?

1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____ 4. _____

22. In what **year were you born?**_____

23. What is the **highest grade in school you completed**?

☐ Elementary School ☐ Junior High School ☐ High School ☐ College ☐ Graduate School

24. What is your current status?

☐ Student ☐ Homemaker ☐ Retired ☐ Employed ☐ Unemployed

☐ Other. State:_____

Administração do questionário:

Local específico: _____

Data:___/___/___*(dia/ mês/ano)*

IDENTIFICAR INQUIRIDOS QUALIFICADOS

1. Qual é o **<u>principal</u> objectivo da sua visita** ao Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês?

A - Lazer, recreação e/ou férias (pode incluir visitas a familiares e amigos se este não for o principal objectivo da viagem)
B – Visita a familiares e amigos
C – Negócios ou razões profissionais
D - Saúde
E - Religião e peregrinação

2. Nesta viagem, quantas **noites** vai ficar num **local diferente do seu local de residência habitual**? _____ noites

2a. Quantas dessas **noites** vão ser passadas na **área do Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês**? *(Mostrar um mapa do Parque aos inquiridos)* _____ noites

Se a resposta à perqunta 1 foi "A" <u>e</u> a resposta à pergunta 2 foi "uma" ou "mais que uma noite", o inquirido deve continuar a responder ao questionário. No que respeita a todos os outros inquiridos, o entrevistador deve agradecer-lhes pela sua colaboração e explicar que eles não terão que responder a nenhuma outra questão.

DESTINOS CONSIDERADOS

3. Antes de visitar o Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês, passou provavelmente algum tempo a pensar que lugar havia de visitar. Indique, por favor, todos os **outros destinos que pensou visitar** com o objectivo de lazer, recreação e/ou férias, <u>mas que não chegou a visitar.</u> Tente, por favor, lembrar-se e indicar <u>todos os que conseguir</u>.

1. _____ 2. _____
3. _____ 4. _____
5. _____ 6. _____
7. _____ 8. _____
9. _____ 10. _____

4. Se não tivesse visitado o Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês, qual dos **destinos** que mencionou anteriormente *(destinos indicados na pergunta 3)* teria **maior probabilidade de ter visitado**? _____

5. Se não tivesse visitado o Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês, qual dos **destinos** que mencionou anteriormente *(destinos indicados na pergunta 3)* teria **menor probabilidade de ter visitado**? _____

PERGUNTAS SOBRE O PARQUE NACIONAL DA PENEDA-GERÊS, O SEU CONCORRENTE MAIS FORTE E O SEU CONCORRENTE MAIS FRACO

Agora, nós gostaríamos de colocar-lhe algumas questões sobre o destino que está a visitar e os destinos que identificou nas duas últimas perguntas – aqueles que teria maior e menor probabilidade de ter visitado se não tivesse vindo para este local.

6. Já visitou estes três destinos anteriormente?
(Quando os inquiridos mencionarem que já tinham visitado um destino anteriormente, o entrevistador tem que colocar a seguinte questão) Indique o número de **vezes** que já visitou este destino anteriormente e **quanto tempo passou desde a última vez que o visitou**.

Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês ☐ Nunca o visitei. ☐ Eu já o visitei ___ vezes anteriormente.
A minha última visita teve lugar há ___ anos.

Destino da pergunta 4 ☐ Nunca o visitei. ☐ Eu já o visitei ___ vezes anteriormente
A minha última visita teve lugar há ___ anos.

Destino da pergunta 5 ☐ Nunca o visitei. ☐ Eu já o visitei ___ vezes anteriormente.
A minha última visita teve lugar há ___ anos.

7. Quanto tempo demora a **viagem de sua casa a** cada um **dos três destinos**?

Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês:____ horas

Destino da pergunta 4:____ horas

Destino da pergunta 5:____ horas

8. Nós gostaríamos de saber quais destas **fontes de informação** consultou para obter informação sobre estes três destinos desde que pensou, pela primeira vez, em viajar nesta altura. *(mostrar aos inquiridos a lista de fontes de informação apresentada no quadro seguinte)*
(Quando uma fonte de informação for mencionada pelo inquirido, o entrevistador tem que colocar a seguinte questão) Quanto tempo passou a consultar esta fonte de informação? *(o tempo deve ser registado pelo entrevistador em termos de horas)*

	Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês	***Destino da pergunta 4***	***Destino da pergunta 5***
Brochuras	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Amigos e familiares	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Guias de viagem (publicações)	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Alojamento situado neste destino	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Programas de televisão	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Livros/artigos de jornais e revistas	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Mapas	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Organizações públicas de turismo / postos de turismo	_____ horas	_____ horas	_____ horas
Outros. Indique-os, por favor: _____ _____	_____ horas _____ horas	_____ horas _____ horas	_____ horas _____ horas

9. Utilizou a internet para contactar alguma fonte de informação mencionada na última pergunta?

☐ Sim ☐ Não *(Se o inquirido respondeu "não", não coloque as perguntas 10 e 11)*

10. Qual destas fontes contactou através da internet? *(mostrar novamente a lista de fontes de informação aos inquiridos)* _____

11. Indique, por favor, o **grau de importância da internet na obtenção de informação**. Utilize, por favor, a seguinte escala para responder à pergunta. *(mostrar a escala seguinte aos inquiridos e assinalar com um círculo o número que reflecte a opinião do inquirido)*

nada importante	*ligeiramente importante*	*algo importante*	*tmuito importante*	*extremamente importante*
1	2	3	4	5

12. Indique, para cada um dos destinos, os **aspectos** sobre os quais **procurou informação**. *(mostrar aos inquiridos a lista de atributos apresentada no quadro seguinte). (colocar uma cruz nos espaços que correspondem a itens sobre os quais os inquiridos procuraram informação)*

	Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês	***Destino da pergunta 4***	***Destino da pergunta 5***
Preço dos meios de alojamento existentes no destino			
Paisagem			
Costumes e cultura			
Tipo de alojamento existente no destino			
Flora e fauna			
Hospitalidade dos residentes locais			
Praias			
Centros históricos			
Trilhos pedestres			
Segurança			
Arquitectura e edifícios			
Preço da viagem para o destino			
Gastronomia local			
O caminho para chegar ao destino			
Rios e lagos			
Restaurantes			
Parques de campismo			
Clima			
Nível de poluição			
Transportes disponíveis para viajar para o destino			
Outros. Indique-os, por favor: _____ _____	_____ _____	_____ _____	_____ _____

O objectivo das perguntas seguintes é obter uma perspectiva relativamente aos aspectos que tornaram os destinos atractivos para si quando considerou visitar estes destinos. Sinta-se à vontade para responder "não sei" quando não tenha uma opinião sobre o assunto. No entanto, pedimos-lhe que evite seleccionar esta opção sempre que seja possível, pois a sua percepção relativamente a estes destinos é a informação mais importante que estamos a procurar obter através deste estudo.

13. Qual foi a **importância** que os **seguintes aspectos tiveram em tornar o destino atractivo** para si quando estava a considerar visitar o destino? Por favor, utilize a seguinte escala para responder à pergunta.

nada importante	*ligeiramente importante*	*algo importante*	*muito importante*	*extremamente importante*
1	2	3	4	5

(Para cada destino, em cada linha, assinale com um círculo o número que melhor reflecte a sua opinião).

	Parque Nacional da Peneda Gerês	***Destino da pergunta 4***	***Destino da pergunta 5***
Paisagem	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Costumes e cultura	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Alojamento	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Flora e fauna	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de descansar	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Hospitalidade dos residentes locais	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de aprender coisas, alargar os meus conhecimentos	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Praias	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Centros históricos	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de conhecer pessoas novas	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Trilhos pedestres	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Segurança	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Oportunidades para apreciar a paisagem, estar próximo da natureza	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Arquitectura e edifícios	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de contactar com os residentes locais	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Gastronomia local	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Estruturas para fornecimento de informação	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de evitar as responsabilidades do dia a dia, descansar mentalmente	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Rios e lagos	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Restaurantes	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de ver um local específico	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Parques de campismo	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de ter paz e sossego, estar longe das multidões	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de conhecer e explorar coisas novas, mudança para um ambiente diferente	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Desejo de estar com os com os meus amigos, desenvolver novas amizades	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Clima	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Este destino não ter demasiadas pessoas	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Ambiente não poluído	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S

14. Em que medida os seguintes **aspectos dificultaram a sua viagem para os três destinos**? Por favor, utilize a seguinte escala para responder à pergunta.

não dificultou	*dificultou ligeiramente*	*tornou algo difícil*	*dificultou muito*	*dificultou extremamente*
1	2	3	4	5

(Para cada destino, em cada linha, assinale com um círculo o número que melhor reflecte a sua opinião).

	Parque Nacional da Peneda Gerês	***Destino da pergunta 4***	***Destino da pergunta 5***
Os meios de alojamento existentes no destino eram caros	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Estava demasiado ocupado(a)	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
As infra-estruturas de transporte para chegar ao destino não eram boas	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
A viagem para este destino era cara	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Dificuldade em encontrar informação relativamente a como chegar ao destino	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
O destino era muito longe do local onde vive	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Tinha coisas mais importantes para fazer	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Não tinha dinheiro suficiente	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Não era fácil chegar ao destino	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Era difícil arranjar tempo suficiente para visitar o destino	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S

15. Indique, por favor, em que medida **concorda com as seguintes afirmações**. Por favor, indique o seu grau de concordância utilizando a seguinte escala.

discordo fortemente	*discordo*	*nem concordo nem discordo*	*concordo*	*concordo fortemente*
1	2	3	4	5

(Para cada destino, em cada linha, assinale com um círculo o número que melhor reflecte a sua opinião).

	Parque Nacional da Peneda Gerês	***Destino da pergunta 4***	***Destino da pergunta 5***
Atribui muita importância a uma viagem para este tipo de destinos	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
A viagem para este tipo de destinos representa, para si, um grande presente	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Consegue-se dizer muito sobre uma pessoa sabendo se ele(a) visita ou não este tipo de destinos	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Pode-se obter muito prazer através de uma viagem para este tipo de destinos	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Visitar este tipo de destinos dá uma perspectiva do tipo de pessoa que é	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Tem muito interesse por este tipo de destinos	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Para si, visitar este tipo de destinos é um verdadeiro prazer	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
O facto de escolher visitar este tipo de destinos diz muito sobre si	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

DADOS PESSOAIS

Finalmente, para fins estatísticos, poderia dar-nos alguma informação sobre si?

16.Sexo: ☐ Masculino ☐ Feminino

17.País de residência ☐ Portugal. Indique, por favor, o concelho onde vive: _____

☐ Outro país. Especifique, por favor _____

18. Tamanho do grupo de viagem: ___ pessoas. Presença de pessoas com menos de 15 anos: ☐ Sim ☐ Não

19. Que **meios de transporte** utilizou para chegar ao Parque Nacional da Peneda-Gerês? *(Mostrar aos inquiridos uma lista dos meios de transporte)* Pode indicar mais do que um meio de transporte.

☐ Avião ☐ Carro ☐ Autocarro ☐ Comboio ☐ Taxi

☐ Outro. Indique-o: _____

20. Que **tipo de meio de alojamento** vai utilizar por mais noites durante esta viagem? *(mostrar aos inquiridos uma lista dos diferentes tipos de alojamento)* Indique somente um tipo de alojamento.

☐ Hotéis ☐ Pensões ☐ Parques de campismo ☐ Outro. Indique-o: _____

21. Quais são as principais **actividades** que realizou ou está a planear realizar no local que está a visitar?

1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____ 4. _____

22. Em que **ano nasceu?**_____

23. Qual é o **nível de estudos mais elevado que completou**?

☐ 1º ou 2º ciclo ☐ 3º ciclo ☐ Ensino secundário ☐ Bacharelato ou licenciatura ☐ Mestrado ou doutoramento

24. Qual a sua situação actual?

☐ Estudante ☐ Doméstica ☐ Reformado(a) ☐ Empregado(a) ☐ Desempregado(a)

☐ Outro. Indique-o:_____

Présentation du questionnaire:

Local spécifique: _____

Date:___/___/___*(jour/ mois/année)*

IDENTIFICATION DE PERSONNES INTERROGÉES DÛMENT QUALIFIÉES

1. Quel est le **principal objectif de votre visite** au Parc National de Peneda-Gerês?

A - Loisirs, plaisir et/ou vacances (y compris visite à la famille ou à des amis, s'il ne s'agit pas du but principal du voyage)
B – Visite à la famille et à des amis
C –Affaires ou raisons professionnelles
D - Santé
E – Religion et pèlerinage

2. Au cours de votre voyage, combien de **nuits** allez-vous séjourner dans un **endroit différent de votre résidence habituelle**? _____ nuits

2a. Combien de **nuits** allez-vous passer dans la **zone du Parc National de Peneda-Gerês**? *(Montrer une carte du Parc aux personnes interrogées)* _____ nuits

Si la réponse à la question 1 est "A" et la réponse à la question 2 est "une" ou "plusieurs nuits", la personne interrogée devra continuer à répondre au questionnaire. Dans le cas contraire, l'enquêteur devra remercier les personnes interrogées de leur collaboration et expliquer qu'ils n'auront pas besoin de répondre à d'autres questions.

DESTINATIONS CONSIDÉRÉES

3. Avant de visiter le Parc National de Peneda-Gerês, vous avez sûrement réfléchi un certain temps à l'endroit que vous deviez visiter. Veuillez indiquer toutes **les autres destinations auxquelles vous aviez pensé pour effectuer une visite** que ce soit pour vos loisirs, votre plaisir et/ou vos vacances, mais que vous n'avez pas visitées. Essayez de vous souvenir de celles-ci et indiquez toutes celles dont vous vous souvenez.

1. _____ 2. _____
3. _____ 4. _____
5. _____ 6. _____
7. _____ 8. _____
9. _____ 10. _____

4. Si vous n'aviez pas visité le Parc National de Peneda-Gerês, quelle **destination** parmi celles mentionées précédement *(destinations indiquées dans la question 3)* aurait eu **la plus forte probabilité de recevoir votre visite**? _____

5. Si vous n'aviez pas visité le Parc National de Peneda-Gerês, quelle **destination** parmi celles mentionées précédement *(destinations indiquées dans la question 3)* aurait eu **la plus faible probabilité de recevoir votre visite**? _____

QUESTIONS SUR LE PARC NATIONAL DE PENEDA-GERÊS, SON CONCURRENT LE PLUS FORT ET SON CONCURRENT LE PLUS FAIBLE

Maintenant nous aimerions vous poser quelques questions sur la destination visitée et les destinations identifiées dans les deux dernières questions – celles ayant la plus forte et la plus faible probabilité de recevoir votre visite, si vous n'étiez pas venu ici.

6. Avez-vous déjà visité ces trois destinations auparavant?
Quand les personnes interrogées ont mentionné avoir déjà visité une destination auparavant, l'enquêteur doit poser la question suivante) **Combien de fois** avez-vous déjà visité cette destination auparavant et **combien de temps s'est écoulé depuis votre dernière visite**?

Parc National de Peneda-Gerês ☐ Jamais je ne l'avais visité. ☐ Je l'avais déjà visité ___ fois auparavant.
Dernière visite effectuée, il y a ___ ans.

Destination de la question 4 ☐ Jamais je ne l'avais visité. ☐ Je l'avais déjà visité ___ fois auparavant.
Dernière visite effectuée, il y a ___ ans.

Destination de la question 5 ☐ Jamais je ne l'avais visité. ☐ Je l'avais déjà visité ___ fois auparavant.
Dernière visite effectuée, il y a ___ ans.

7. Combien de temps vous faut-il pour effectuer le **voyage entre votre maison** et les **trois destinations**?

Parc National de Peneda-Gerês:____ heures

Destination de la question 4:____ heures

Destination de la question 5:____ heures

8. Nous aimerions connaître les **sources d'information** consultées pour obtenir des renseignements sur ces trois destinations, à partir du moment où vous avez décidé pour la première fois de voyager. *(montrer aux personnes interrogées la liste des sources d'information présentées dans le tableau suivante)*
(Quand une source d'information sera mentionée par la personne interrogée, l'enquêteur devra lui poser la question suivante) Vous avez passé combien de temps à consulter cette source d'information? *(l'enquêteur devra indiquer le temps en heures)*

	Parc National de Peneda-Gerês	***Destination de la question 4***	***Destination de la question 5***
Brochures	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Amis et famille	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Guides de voyage (publications)	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Hébergement existant sur le site	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Émissions de télévision	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Livres/articles de journaux et magazines	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Cartes	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Organismes publics de tourisme / offices de tourisme	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
Autres. Veuillez indiquer lesquels: _____	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures
_____	_____ heures	_____ heures	_____ heures

9. Avez-vous utilisé le réseau internet pour consulter une source d'information mentionnée dans la dernière question?

☐ Oui ☐ Non *(Si la personne interrogée a répondu"non", ne posez pas les questions 10 et 11)*

10. Quelles sources d'information avez-vous consultées sur le réseau internet? *(montrer une nouvelle fois la liste des sources d'information aux personnes interrogées)* _____

11. Veuillez indiquer le **degré d'importance du réseau internet dans le recueil d'information**. Veuillez utiliser l'échelle suivante pour répondre à la question. *(montrer l'échelle suivante et entourez le nombre reflétant l'opinion de la personne interrogée)*

pas du tout important	*peu important*	*relativement important*	*très important*	*extrêmement important*
1	2	3	4	5

12. Indiquez, pour chacune des destinations, les **aspects** sur lesquels vous avez **recherché des informations**. *(montrer aux personnes interrogées la liste d'attributs présentée dans le tableau suivant). (Faites une croix dans l'espace correspondant aux sujets sur lesquels les personnes interrogées ont effectué des recherches d'information.)*

	Parc National de Peneda-Gerês	***Destination de la question 4***	***Destination de la question 5***
Prix des différents types d'hébergement existant sur le site			
Paysages			
Costumes et culture			
Type d'hébergement existant sur le site			
Flore et faune			
Hospitalité des populations locales			
Plages			
Centres historiques			
Sentiers pédestres			
Sécurité			
Architecture et édifices			
Prix du voyage pour la destination choisie			
Gastronomie locale			
Itinéraire à suivre pour arriver à destination			
Fleuves et lacs			
Restaurants			
Campings			
Climat			
Degré de pollution			
Moyens de transport disponibles pour cette destination			
Autres. Vueillez vous indiquer lesquels: _____ _____	_____ _____	_____ _____	_____ _____

L'objectif des questions suivantes est d'obtenir une perspective concernant les aspects ayant rendu les destinations attrayantes à vos yeux au moment où vous avez décidé de les visiter. Vous pouvez répondre "je ne sais pas" si vous n'avez aucune opinion sur le sujet. Cependant, évitez le plus possible de sélectionner cette option. En effet, votre perception concernant ces destinations constitue l'essentiel de l'information recherchée par l'intermédiaire de cette étude.

13. Quel a été le degré d'**importance** que les **aspects suivants ont eu pour rendre la destination attrayante** à vos yeux au moment où vous avez choisi cette destination pour effectuer une visite? Pour répondre à la question, veuillez utiliser l'échelle proposée.

pas du tout important	*peu important*	*relativement important*	*très important*	*extrêmement important*
1	2	3	4	5

(Pour chaque destination, sur chaque ligne, entourez le nombre correspondant le mieux à votre opinion).

	Parc National de Peneda-Gerês	***Destination de la question 4***	***Destination de la question 5***
Paysages	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Costumes et culture	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Hébergement	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Flore et faune	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de reposer	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Hospitalité des populations locales	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir d'apprendre des choses, d'élargir mes connaissances	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Plages	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Centres historiques	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de connaître d'autres personnes	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Sentiers pédestres	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Sécurité	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Opportunités pour apprécier le paysage, être près de la nature	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Architecture et édifices	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de contacter la population locale	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Gastronomie locale	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Structure à même de fournir des informations	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir d'éviter les responsabilités quotidiennes, et de se reposer l'esprit	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Fleuves et lacs	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Restaurants	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de voir un endroit spécifique	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Campings	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de paix et de calme, être loin de la foule	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de connaître et d'explorer des choses nouvelles, changement d'ambiance	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Désir de se retrouver entre amis, se faire de nouveaux amis	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Climat	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Le fait de ne pas avoir beaucoup de monde à cet endroit	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Environnement non-pollué	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S

14. Dans quelle mesure les **aspects** suivants **ont rendu difficile votre voyage vers ces trois destinations**? Veuillez utiliser l'échelle suivante pour répondre à la question.

N'ont rendu pas du tout difficile	*ont rendu légèrement difficile*	*ont rendu relativement difficile*	*ont rendu très difficile*	*ont rendu extrêmement difficile*
1	2	3	4	5

(Pour chaque destination, sur chaque ligne, entourez le nombre correspondant le mieux à votre opinion).

	Parc National de Peneda-Gerês	***Destination de la question 4***	***Destination de la question 5***
Les types d'hébergement sur place étaient onéreux	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Vous étiez trop occupé	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Mauvaises infrastructures de transport pour arriver à destination	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Voyage pour cette destination relativement coûteux	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Difficulté d'obtenir des informations concernant l'itinéraire à suivre	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Destination très éloignée de l'endroit où vous vivez	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Vous aviez des choses plus importantes à faire	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Vous n'aviez pas suffisamment d'argent	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Il n'était pas facile d'arriver à destination	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S
Il était difficile de trouver le temps nécessaire pour visiter cette destination	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S	1 2 3 4 5 N/S

15. Veuillez indiquer, dans quelle mesure vous **êtes d'accord avec les affirmations** suivantes. Utilisez l'échelle suivante pour exprimer votre opinion.

tout à fait contre	*contre*	*ni pour ni contre*	*d'accord*	*tout à fait d'accord*
1	2	3	4	5

(Pour chaque destination, sur chaque ligne, entourez le nombre correspondant le mieux à votre opinion).

	Parc National de Peneda-Gerês	***Destination de la question 4***	***Destination de la question 5***
Vous donnez beaucoup d'importance à un voyage vers ce genre de destination	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Un voyage vers ce genre de destination est pour vous un cadeaux appréciable	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
On peut apprendre beaucoup de choses sur une personne sachant qu'elle visite ou non ce genre de destination	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Un voyage vers ce genre de destination peut apporter beaucoup de plaisir	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Visiter ce genre de destination donne une perspective sur le type de personne que vous êtes	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Ce genre de destination vous intéresse tout particulièrement	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Pour vous, visiter ce genre d'endroit est une véritable plaisir	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
Le fait de choisir visiter ce type de destination en dit long sur vous	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

RENSEIGNEMENTS PERSONNELS

Finalement, pour établir des statistiques, nous aimerions obtenir quelques renseignements sur vous.

16.Sexe: ☐ Masculin ☐ Féminin

17.Pays de résidence ☐ Portugal. Veuillez indiquer le département où vous vivez _____

☐ Autre pays. Veuillez spécifier lequel _____

18. Dimension du grupe effectuant ce voyage: ___ personnes.

Présence de personnes âgées moins de 15 ans: ☐ Oui ☐ Non

19. Quels **moyens de transport** avez-vous utilisé pour arriver au Parc National de Peneda-Gerês? *(Montrer aux personnes interrogées une liste de moyens de transport)* Vous pouvez indiquer plusieurs moyens de transport.

☐ Avion ☐ Voiture ☐ Autocar ☐ Train ☐ Taxi

☐ Autre. Indiquez lequel: _____

20. Au cours de ce voyage, quel **type d'hébergement** allez-vous utiliser pour passer un plus grand nombre de nuits? *(montrez aux personnes interrogées une liste des différentes types d'hébergement)* Indiquez seulement un mode d'hébergement.

☐ Hôtél ☐ Pension ☐ Camping ☐ Autre. Indiquez lequel: _____

21. Quelles sont les principales **activités** pratiquées ou que vous pensez réaliser dans l'endroit que vous êtes entraint de visiter?

1. _____ 2. _____

3. _____ 4. _____

22. En quelle **année êtes-vous né(e)?**_____

23. Quel est votre **niveau d'études**?

☐ Primaire ☐ Collège (1er cycle)

☐ Baccalauréat (enseignement secondaire) ☐ DEUG ou Licence ☐ Maîtrise ou Doctorat

24. Actuellement, quelle est votre **situation professionnelle ?**

☐ Étudiant ☐ Travail domestique à la maison ☐ Retraité(e) ☐ Employé(e) ☐ Au chômage

☐ Autre. Indiquez lequel:_____

Appendix 3 – Comparison between those who searched information and those who did not search in terms of familiarity, involvement and constraints (Gerês and Sintra samples)

Gerês sample

			Searched		Not searched		Sig.	t test	df
			N	Mean	N	Mean			
Area visited	Familiarity	previous visits	900	2.95	210	8.61	0.000	5.353	232.487
		duration of travel to the area	899	7.59	209	6.19	0.115	-1.581	338.316
		elapsed time since last visit	445	50.45	171	33.30	0.000	-3.578	490.360
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	901	4.34	210	4.38	0.362	0.914	340.799
		sign	901	3.44	210	3.47	0.700	0.386	291.408
	Constraints	financial constraints	901	1.42	209	1.29	0.001	-3.214	363.234
		time constraints	900	1.45	208	1.54	0.158	1.414	283.981
		accessibility constraints	900	1.61	209	1.54	0.226	-1.213	321.769
Strongest competitor	Familiarity	previous visits	284	1.86	109	3.72	0.010	2.601	127.977
		duration of travel to the area	283	8.49	108	7.11	0.265	-1.118	222.327
		elapsed time since last visit	125	38.41	63	28.70	0.258	-1.136	185.539
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	284	4.26	110	4.20	0.420	-0.807	392.000
		sign	284	3.35	109	3.45	0.289	1.061	391.000
	Constraints	financial constraints	284	2.00	110	2.01	0.887	0.142	223.406
		time constraints	284	1.74	110	1.70	0.715	-0.365	238.785
		accessibility constraints	284	1.58	110	1.60	0.852	0.187	392.000
Weakest competitor	Familiarity	previous visits	219	2.05	90	1.50	0.236	-1.190	215.729
		duration of travel to the area	217	9.16	88	10.07	0.600	0.525	136.843
		elapsed time since last visit	86	36.34	38	75.89	0.707	-0.376	307.000
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	219	4.11	90	4.07	0.700	-0.386	176.100
		sign	219	3.27	90	3.28	0.916	0.105	150.548
	Constraints	financial constraints	219	2.41	90	2.38	0.660	0.441	307.000
		time constraints	219	1.76	90	1.82	0.663	0.436	161.993
		accessibility constraints	219	1.65	89	1.65	0.979	-0.026	306.000

Key: In the cases where there was homogeneity of variances, the values of the t tests correspond to the tests where equal variances were assumed.
When there was not homogeneity of variances in the t tests, the values of the t tests correspond to those where equal variances were not assumed.

Sintra sample

			Searched		Not searched		Sig.	t test	df
			N	Mean	N	Mean			
Area visited	Familiarity	previous visits *	539	275.756	17	365.500	0.000	-4.014	
		duration of travel to the area *	535	277.956	17	230.676	0.228	-1.205	
		elapsed time since last visit *	60	34.233	7	32.000	0.772	-0.290	
	Involvement	interest/pleasure *	539	278.366	17	282.735	0.911	-0.111	
		sign *	536	278.532	17	228.706	0.202	-1.276	
	Constraints	financial constraints *	539	280.732	17	207.735	0.056	-1.912	
		time constraints *	538	278.756	17	254.088	0.505	-0.666	
		accessibility constraints *	539	278.029	17	293.441	0.677	-0.417	
Strongest competitor	Familiarity	previous visits	314	0.25	89	0.92	0.055	1.946	93.154
		duration of travel to the area	312	14.56	89	9.76	0.002	-3.121	305.551
		elapsed time since last visit *	35	28.114	21	29.143	0.818	-0.230	
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	314	4.08	89	4.01	0.818	-0.778	401.000
		sign	313	3.16	89	3.29	0.280	1.084	135.435
	Constraints	financial constraints	314	2.28	89	2.15	0.296	-1.046	401.000
		time constraints	314	2.20	89	2.24	0.743	0.329	133.766
		accessibility constraints	314	1.84	89	1.88	0.742	0.330	133.438
Weakest competitor	Familiarity	previous visits	216	0.22	102	0.67	0.069	1.838	113.092
		duration of travel to the area	215	17.06	101	10.78	0.002	-3.106	313.356
		elapsed time since last visit *	29	27.328	23	25.457	0.657	-0.444	
	Involvement	interest/pleasure	216	3.74	102	3.93	0.077	1.777	316.000
		sign	215	2.98	102	3.26	0.022	2.304	189.655
	Constraints	financial constraints	216	2.45	102	2.54	0.550	0.599	176.627
		time constraints	216	2.26	102	2.47	0.163	1.401	182.438
		accessibility constraints	216	1.85	102	1.92	0.548	0.602	316.000

Key: * In these cases Mann-Whitney U tests were performed due to the low number of people who did not searched; thus, the values presented correspond to the mean ranks and to the Z statistic. In the t tests, when there was homogeneity of variances, the values of the t tests correspond to the t tests where equal variances were assumed. When there was not homogeneity of variances in the t tests, the values of the t tests correspond to those where equal variances were not assumed.

Appendix 4 – Variables that significantly influenced the decision of whether or not to search – Results of logistic regressions for the Gerês and Sintra samples

Area visited

		Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=1,077	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	-0.083	0.012	45.768	0.000	0.920	
	Constraints	**financial constraints**	0.791	0.209	14.384	0.000	2.205	
		time constraints	-0.476	0.128	13.922	0.000	0.621	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.30
	Socio-economic data	**age**	0.030	0.009	11.887	0.001	10.303	
		economic activity						
		employed	-0.410	0.226	3.277	0.070	0.664	
		otherwise	X					HL Test
		travel group size	-0.023	0.010	5.584	0.018	0.977	X^2 = 6.741
		hotel establishments						(sig. 0.565)
	Behavior before and during the trip	hotel establishments	0.954	0.250	14.565	0.000	2.596	
		other kind of accommodation	X					
		other collective accommodation						Model X^2=
		other collective accommodation	1.276	0.257	24.731	0.000	3.582	=212.815
		other kind of accommodation	X					(sig. 0.000)
		number of alternate destinations	0.997	0.155	41.163	0.000	2.709	
	Constant		-0.297	0.471	0.397	0.528	0.743	
Sintra N=546	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	-0.376	0.138	7.404	0.007	0.687	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.21
		duration of travel to the area	0.057	0.033	3.098	0.078	1.059	
	Involvement	**sign**	0.495	0.288	2.952	0.086	1.641	
	Constraints	**financial constraints**	1.123	0.569	3.891	0.049	3.073	HL Test
	Behavior before and during the trip	**travel group size**	-0.033	0.011	8.612	0.003	0.967	X^2 = 15.249
		hotel establishments						(sig. 0.054)
		hotel establishments	1.035	0.573	3.251	0.071	2.814	
		other kind of accommodation	X					Model X^2=
	Constant		-0.409	1.260	0.106	0.745	0.664	=28.901
								(sig. 0.000)

Key: X - reference category. HL - Hosmer and Lemeshow.

Strongest competitor

		Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=388	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	-0.053	0.026	4.147	0.042	0.948	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.23
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration of stay in the area visited**	0.058	0.032	3.252	0.071	1.060	HL Test X^2 = 7.420 (sig. 0.492)
	Features referring to the area visited	**searched for the area visited**						
		no	X					
		yes	2.995	0.491	37.149	0.001	19.979	Model X^2= =67.642 (sig. 0.000)
	Constant		-1.787	0.515	12.027	0.001	0.167	
Sintra N=381	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	-0.283	0.101	7.889	0.005	0.753	
	Involvement	**interest/pleasure**	1.472	0.289	25.894	0.000	4.357	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.35
		sign	-0.999	0.218	21.040	0.000	0.368	
	Socio-economic data	**age**	-0.050	0.017	8.832	0.003	0.951	HL Test X^2 = 14.467 (sig. 0.070)
		highest grade in school						
		high school or lower	X					
		college or graduate school	-0.916	0.406	5.090	0.024	0.400	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**travel group size**	0.285	0.141	4.064	0.044	1.330	
		duration of the current trip	0.056	0.025	5.021	0.025	1.058	
	Features referring to the area visited	**same country of the area visited**						
		no	X					Model X^2= =94.220 (sig. 0.000)
		yes	-1.783	0.371	23.129	0.000	0.168	
		searched for the area visited						
		no	X					
		yes	3.298	0.796	17.176	0.000	27.066	
	Constant		-2.171	1.345	2.604	0.107	0.114	

Key: X - reference category. HL - Hosmer and Lemeshow.

Weakest competitor

		Independent variables (predictors)	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)	Other indicators
Gerês N=302	**Familiarity**	**previous visits**	0.145	0.058	6.350	0.012	1.156	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.22
	Features referring to the area visited	**searched for the area visited**						HL Test X^2 = 5.789 (sig. 0.327)
		no	X					
		yes	3.998	0.878	20.727	0.000	54.484	Model X^2= =50.565 (sig. 0.000)
	Constant		-2.996	0.886	11.429	0.001	0.050	
Sintra N=315	**Familiarity**	**duration of travel to the area**	0.013	0.009	1.906	0.167	1.013	
	Involvement	**interest/pleasure**	-0.456	0.169	7.243	0.007	0.634	
	Constraints	**time constraints**	-0.327	0.121	7.315	0.007	0.721	
	Socio-economic data	**age**	-0.072	0.017	18.789	0.000	0.930	Nagelkerke R^2 = 0.30
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration of the current trip**	0.061	0.026	5.672	0.017	1.063	
		hotel establishments						HL Test X^2 = 3.267 (sig. 0.917)
		hotel establishments	1.185	0.430	7.582	0.006	3.271	
		other kind of accommodation	X					
		other collective accommodation						Model X^2= =76.172 (sig. 0.000)
		other collective accommodation	2.118	0.526	16.191	0.000	8.317	
		other kind of accommodation	X					
		number of alternate destinations	-0.136	0.076	3.164	0.075	0.873	
	Features referring to the area visited	**searched for the area visited**						
		no	X					
		yes	2.949	1.031	8.184	0.004	19.090	
	Constant		1.027	1.494	0.472	0.492	2.792	

Key: X - reference category. HL - Hosmer and Lemeshow.

Appendix 5 – Variables that significantly influenced the strength of search in the case of those who searched – Results of linear regressions for the Gerês and Sintra samples

Gerês sample		Independent variables	Unst.Coeffic.		St.Coef.	t	Sig.	Collin.Stat.		Other indicators
			B	S.E.	Beta			Toler.	VIF	
Linear regression model of the Area visited N=855	**Familiarity**	**previous visits** (transf.)	-0.366	0.144	-0.074	-2.543	0.011	0.941	1.1	Adjusted R^2=0.32 Durbin-Watson =1.56
	Constraints	**accessibility constraints** (transf.)	-0.767	0.322	-0.068	-2.381	0.017	0.970	1.0	
	Socio-economic data	**economic activity**								
		otherwise	X							
		employed	-0.302	0.134	-0.066	-2.261	0.024	0.953	1.0	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**duration stay area visited** (transf.)	0.764	0.197	0.114	3.872	0.000	0.925	1.1	
		alternate destinations	0.305	0.035	0.248	8.619	0.000	0.968	1.0	
	Information search	**use internet**								
		no	X							
		yes	0.932	0.144	0.210	6.455	0.000	0.757	1.3	
		did not search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.670	0.205	-0.372	-8.159	0.000	0.384	2.6	
		commercial printed material search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.170	0.197	-0.252	-5.944	0.000	0.444	2.3	
		only friends and relatives search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.555	0.206	-0.516	-12.413	0.000	0.463	2.2	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.488	0.281	-0.308	-8.863	0.000	0.662	1.5	
	Constant		0.869	0.247		3.523	0.000			
Linear regression model of the Strongest competitors N=259	**Behavior before and during the trip**	**duration stay area visited** (transf.)	1.004	0.310	0.143	3.237	0.001	0.942	1.1	Adjusted R^2=0.53 Durbin-Watson =2.0
		hotel establishments								
		other kind of accommodation	X							
		hotel establishments	0.770	0.190	0.180	4.048	0.000	0.924	1.1	
		alternate destinations	0.106	0.053	0.087	2.001	0.046	0.961	1.0	
	Features referring to the area visited	**strength search area visited**	0.488	0.041	0.523	11.847	0.000	0.942	1.1	
	Information search	**did not search**								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.931	0.259	-0.182	-3.587	0.000	0.715	1.4	
		commercial printed material search								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.883	0.248	0.186	-3.564	0.000	0.675	1.5	
		only friends and relatives search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.016	0.267	-0.388	-7.564	0.000	0.697	1.4	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.645	0.450	-0.166	-3.657	0.000	0.889	1.1	
	Constant		-0.801	0.323		-2.477	0.014			
Linear regression model of the Weakest competitors N=198	**Involvement**	**interest/pleasure** (transf.)	1.650	0.495	0.179	3.333	0.001	0.929	1.1	Adjusted R^2=0.47 Durbin-Watson =1.88
	Socio-economic data	**age** (transf.)	2.481	0.818	0.170	3.034	0.003	0.850	1.2	
	Features referring to the area visited	**strength search area visited**	0.457	0.054	0.457	8.511	0.000	0.927	1.1	
	Information search	**commercial printed material search**								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.335	0.288	-0.259	-4.643	0.000	0.859	1.2	
		only friends and relatives search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.850	0.298	-0.359	-6.206	0.000	0.799	1.3	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.085	0.496	-0.224	-4.206	0.000	0.937	1.1	
	Constant		-6.901	1.746		-3.952	0.000			

Legend: X - reference category.

Sintra sample		Independent variables	Unst.Coeffic.		St.Coef.	t	Sig.	Collin.Stat.		Other
			B	S.E.	Beta			Toler.	VIF	indicators
Linear regression model of the Area visited N=502	**Behavior before and during the trip**	**duration stay area visited** (transf.)	1.534	0.304	0.190	5.046	0.000	0.982	1.0	
		other collective accommodation								
		other kind of accommodation	X							
		other collective accommodation	-0.317	0.156	-0.077	-2.037	0.042	0.982	1.0	Adjusted
		alternate destinations	0.129	0.035	0.141	3.739	0.000	0.975	1.0	R^2=0.30
	Information search	**use internet**								
		no	X							
		yes	0.380	0.141	0.105	2.696	0.007	0.914	1.1	Durbin-
		only friends and relatives search								-Watson
		no	X							=1.51
		yes	-2.313	0.345	-0.257	-6.698	0.000	0.950	1.1	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.690	0.158	-0.418	-10.678	0.000	0.910	1.1	
	Constant		0.052	0.144		0.360	0.719			
Linear regression model of the Strongest competitors N=295	**Constraints**	**time constraints** (transf.)	1.471	0.380	0.164	3.871	0.000	0.824	1.2	
		accessibility constraints (transf.)	-1.170	0.407	-0.117	-2.877	0.004	0.883	1.1	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**alternate destinations**	0.115	0.046	0.102	2.512	0.013	0.900	1.1	
	Features referring to the area visited	**same country area visited**								
		no	X							Adjusted
		yes	0.605	0.165	0.148	3.656	0.000	0.903	1.1	R^2=0.57
		strength search area visited	0.528	0.037	0.566	14.216	0.000	0.929	1.1	
	Information search	**did not search**								Durbin-
		no	X							-Watson
		yes	-1.118	0.246	-0.204	-4.538	0.000	0.726	1.4	=1.33
		commercial printed material search								
		no	X							
		yes	-0.536	0.233	-0.109	-2.300	0.022	0.652	1.5	
		only friends and relatives search								
		no	X							
		yes	-2.065	0.306	-0.295	-6.753	0.000	0.772	1.3	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.259	0.222	-0.273	-5.682	0.000	0.639	1.6	
	Constant		-0.958	0.246		-3.895	0.000			
Linear regression model of the Weakest competitors N=204	**Involvement**	**interest/pleasure** (transf.)	1.331	0.387	0.202	3.437	0.001	0.880	1.1	
	Constraints	**financial constraints** (transf.)	1.079	0.398	0.153	2.714	0.007	0.960	1.0	
	Behavior before and during the trip	**travel group size** (transf.)	-0.978	0.364	-0.155	-2.688	0.008	0.917	1.1	
		other collective accommodation								
		other kind of accommodation	X							Adjusted
		other collective accommodation	-0.436	0.193	-0.131	-2.263	0.025	0.914	1.1	R^2=0.38
	Features referring to the area visited	**strength search area visited**	0.169	0.048	0.217	3.515	0.001	0.801	1.2	Durbin-
		only friends and relatives search								-Watson
		no	X							=1.24
	Information search	yes	-2.243	0.259	-0.505	-8.658	0.000	0.897	1.1	
		guides dependent search								
		no	X							
		yes	-1.007	0.224	-0.271	-4.501	0.000	0.838	1.2	
	Constant		-2.982	0.799		-3.730	0.000			

Legend: X - reference category.

Appendix 6 – Relationship between strength of search and factors that influence search - familiarity, involvement and constraints (Gerês and Sintra samples)

				Strength of search about the destination		
				Area visited	Strongest competitor	Weakest competitor
Gerês sample	Familiarity	previous visits	Correl.	-0.058	-0.061	-0.181
			Sig.	0.087	0.314	0.008
			N	873	276	211
		duration of the travel to the area	Correl.	0.044	0.029	0.137
			Sig.	0.197	0.630	0.047
			N	872	276	210
		elapsed time since the last visit	Correl.	0.006	0.009	0.209
			Sig.	0.894	0.919	0.057
			N	437	123	84
	Involvement	interest/ pleasure	Correl.	-0.008	0.007	0.150
			Sig.	0.803	0.905	0.029
			N	874	276	211
		sign	Correl.	-0.074	0.047	0.116
			Sig.	0.029	0.438	0.093
			N	874	276	211
	Constraints	financial	Correl.	0.040	0.154	0.148
			Sig.	0.238	0.010	0.031
			N	874	276	211
		time	Correl.	-0.018	0.007	-0.029
			Sig.	0.588	0.910	0.677
			N	873	275	211
		accessibility	Correl.	-0.060	-0.050	0.042
			Sig.	0.076	0.410	0.539
			N	873	276	211
Sintra sample	Familiarity	previous visits	Correl.	-0.130	0.006	0.037
			Sig.	0.003	0.911	0.594
			N	519	307	211
		duration of the travel to the area	Correl.	0.031	0.070	-0.073
			Sig.	0.479	0.225	0.292
			N	515	305	210
		elapsed time since the last visit	Correl.	0.096	-0.325	0.156
			Sig.	0.477	0.060	0.419
			N	57	34	29
	Involvement	interest/ pleasure	Correl.	0.013	0.108	0.136
			Sig.	0.762	0.058	0.048
			N	519	307	211
		sign	Correl.	0.054	0.151	0.022
			Sig.	0.219	0.008	0.752
			N	516	306	210
	Constraints	financial	Correl.	0.067	0.036	0.152
			Sig.	0.130	0.534	0.027
			N	519	307	211
		time	Correl.	0.048	0.086	0.029
			Sig.	0.280	0.132	0.676
			N	519	307	211
		accessibility	Correl.	0.027	-0.099	0.095
			Sig.	0.540	0.083	0.168
			N	519	307	211

Key: The variables concerning familiarity, involvement and constraints correspond to the independent variables included in the linear regressions.

significance « 0.05